

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY Illustrated REVIEW OF REVIEWS 1903

Edited by ALBERT SHAW



Profit Sharing in the Steel Corporation

By Walter Wellman. A thorough and authentic study of the gigantic social experiment just begun by the Steel "Trust."

George Bruce Cortelyou, Secretary of Commerce

By Henry B. F. Macfarland. With Portraits

The Twenty Million Dollar Fund of the Methodist Episcopal Church

By Dr. J. M. Buckley. With Portrait

The Late Henry Laurens Dawes

By George Perry Morris. With Portrait

The Lumber Industry of the Pacific Coast

By Alvin Hovey-King. Illustrated

Germany on the Sea

By Winthrop L. Marvin. Illustrated

A Great Electric Plant in Canada

By T. C. Martin. Illustrated

The First Parliament of Australia

By Hugh H. Lusk

The Sultan of Morocco and His Present Troubles

By Talcott Williams. Illustrated

A Typical Group of Australians

With Ten Portraits

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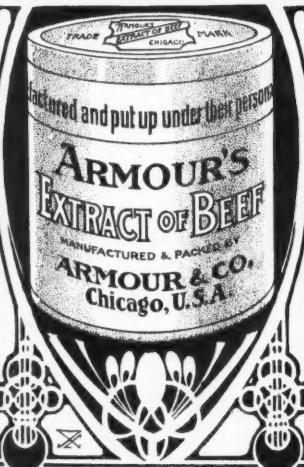
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THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

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THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO AND HIS SUITE LEAVING FEZ.

(An incident of the current civil war in Morocco. See article on page 293.)

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Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXVII.

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No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Great
Citizen and
Exemplar.*

In the death, last month, of the Hon. J. L. M. Curry, this country lost one of its greatest citizens, and in the truest sense of the word one of its most profound statesmen. His career should inspire all our young men,—especially those of the South. Dr. Curry was almost seventy-eight years old. He had been earnest and active in public affairs,—always and everywhere a natural leader and a man of mark,—since he entered the Alabama Legislature at the age of twenty-one in 1847, having served in the Mexican War the year before. He had graduated from the University of Georgia at eighteen, and from the Harvard Law School at twenty. While a mere boy, he had joined Col. Jack Hayes' famous "Texas Rangers," fought for the freedom of the Lone Star State, and received a grant of land from Congress for his services. After ten years of activity and prominence in the State affairs of Alabama, he was elected to Congress at the age of thirty-one, and served until the outbreak of the Civil War, when he went with his State into the secession movement. He passed, in 1861 without interval of time, from membership in the Federal Congress to prominence in the Congress of the Confederate States. He was a member of that Congress until its dissolution in 1865. He served with Toombs and other eminent leaders of the South upon the committee which drafted that interesting and, in many respects, superior and even monumental document, the written constitution of the Confederacy. Meanwhile, he managed to unite civilian service as a Confederate Congressman with no small amount of military service at the front, and was an aide on the staff of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, and, later, on that of Gen. Joseph Wheeler, while in the last year of the war he was a lieutenant-colonel of Alabama cavalry. He was chosen by the Confederate Congress to write the last address and appeal to the Army of Northern Virginia. Such was his record, to the age of forty.

*An Apostle of
Education.*

Like his great leader Robert E. Lee, Dr. Curry accepted the results of the war immediately and in good faith. And, also, like General Lee, he entered at once upon an educational career,—holding the view that along with material and political reorganization there was great work to be done in the upbuilding of the schools and colleges of the Southern States and in the training of a new generation to set its face hopefully toward the bright possibilities of the future. It was not given to General Lee to remain very long at his last post of service. Lee took the presidency of Washington University at Lexington, Va., in 1865, and died in 1870. Dr. Curry took the presidency of Howard College, Alabama, in 1865, and after three years went to Richmond College, Virginia, where he remained in active work until 1881, when he was appointed agent of the Peabody Fund, and entered upon a larger ministry of educational service for the entire South which did not cease until his death last month and which will be the basis of his most enduring fame. When Mr. Cleveland became President in 1885, he sought to identify some of the foremost citizens of the South with his administration, and he offered Dr. Curry the post of United States minister to Spain. The trustees of the Peabody Fund lent Dr. Curry to the government service for a period of three years, at the end of which well-earned furlough,—coming as it did after forty years of continuous activity in Southern affairs, from the accession of James K. Polk to the accession of Grover Cleveland,—he returned to his apostolate of Southern education, and gave to it with unflagging zeal and energy the closing fifteen years of his long life.

*Father of the
New Educa-
tional South.*

Through his statesman-like administration of the Peabody Fund he had fostered the establishment and growth of normal schools throughout the South for the training of teachers, and had been able by judi-

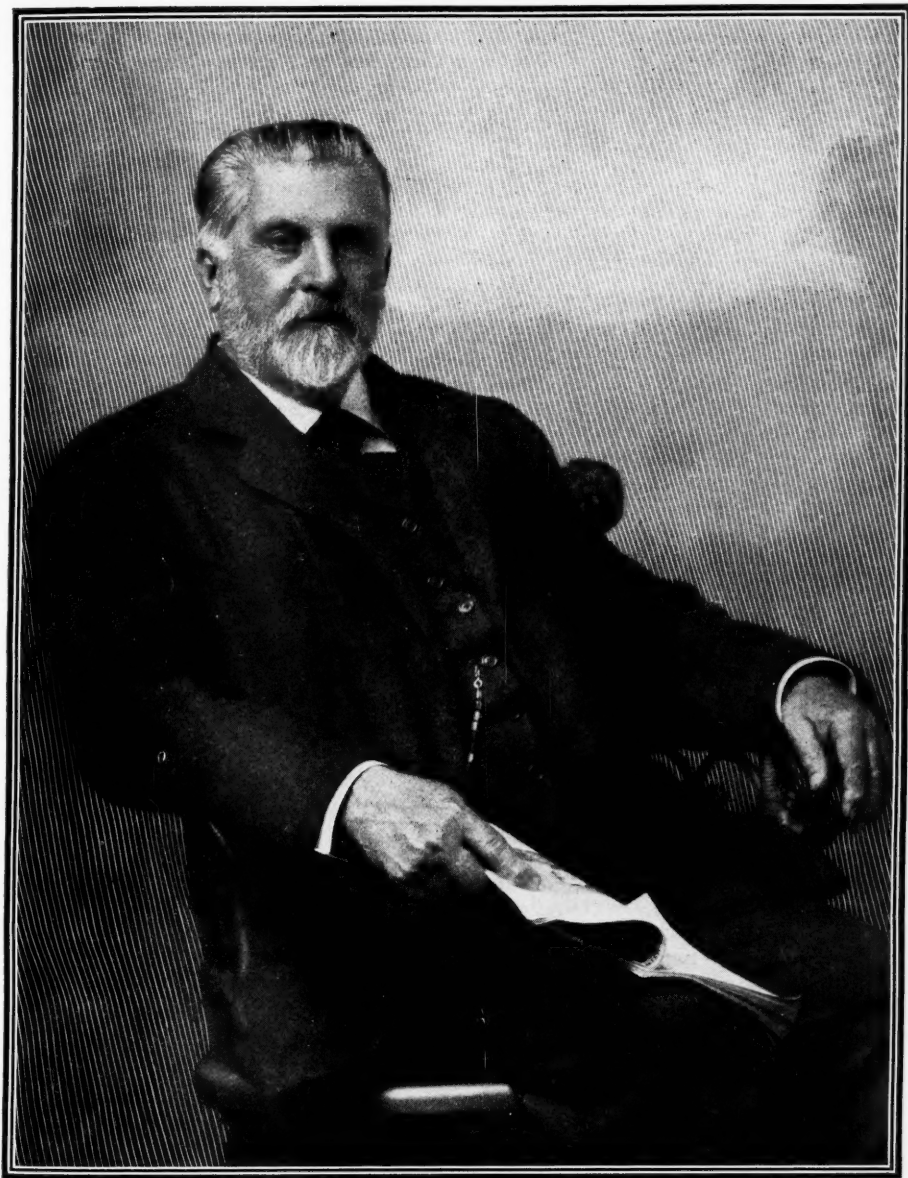
cious aid at opportune moments to promote the establishment in all the larger cities and towns of modern graded schools supported by local taxation. When, subsequently, the Slater Fund for the promotion of negro education was created, Dr. Curry was made one of its trustees and chairman of its education committee; so that, from 1890 until the present year, he administered that important fund in addition to his work as executive officer for the Peabody trustees. As representative of the Slater Fund he had promptly recognized the tremendous value of the work General Armstrong and Dr. Frissell were doing at Hampton, and that Booker T. Washington had entered upon at Tuskegee,—these being only two instances of the many good schools for negroes that he had investigated and had been enabled to assist. When the new movement now carried on under direction of the Southern Education Board was launched, Dr. Curry was its most eloquent exponent, and was appointed its field director. The object of this movement was to awaken the South to the absolute necessity of improving the common schools and providing, especially in the country districts, for the better education of the children of both races. It was essentially a Southern movement, under the leadership of Southern men, though with the harmonious coöperation of many people in the North. Closely associated with this movement was the latest one of all, which, under the name of the General Education Board, has been at work for the past year, and which was a month ago incorporated at Washington by virtue of a special act of Congress. Dr. Curry was also an honored member of this General Board, which is fostering educational progress in the South by giving some money, as well as much advice and encouragement, to the aid of various local movements for better-prepared teachers and a better kind of schools. To these causes Dr. Curry gave unstinted zeal and devotion.

A Harmonizer of Sections and Races. Dr. Curry had probably a wider acquaintance and a greater personal influence than any other man throughout the entire South. He had rare gifts of eloquence, a broad love of humanity, an unwavering faith in God and country, and a patriotism as fervent as any man could possibly possess. Dr. Curry was, moreover, a great harmonizer. He rose above all sectional feeling, and never ceased to do all in his power to promote good understanding between the North and the South. He appreciated thoroughly the difficulties involved in the Southern race problem, but never ceased to work to make those difficulties less and to promote the truest interests in both races. Hav-

ing enjoyed peculiarly agreeable relations with the government and reigning dynasty of Spain when minister at Madrid, he was the man best fitted to be sent to represent the United States at the coronation of the young Spanish king. The mission was a delicate one, in view of the fact that so short a time had elapsed since we had destroyed the Spanish fleets and stripped Spain of all that was left of her island empire in two hemispheres. President Roosevelt, who appreciated the greatness of Dr. Curry's public services, expressed the keenest pleasure in having the privilege of appointing him as our special ambassador on occasion of the brilliant functions at Madrid, and the selection was well justified. Dr. Curry was treated with greater deference and kindness than any other of the envoys who represented the sovereigns, courts, and governments of the nations; and thus his brief ceremonial mission to Madrid was of appreciable value in helping to restore friendly feeling between the American and Spanish peoples.

A Mentor on Southern Questions.

There was hardly another man in the country surviving to the present day who had so large a fund of interesting reminiscences as Dr. Curry. He has written upon the constitutional aspects of the Confederacy, and we could wish that he had given us an elaborate personal narrative of men and times in the South from 1845 to 1865. But Dr. Curry never laid aside the harness of incessant contemporary labor long enough to devote himself to the leisurely writing of reminiscences. He lived much more in the present and the future than in the past. To the very end, he was younger in spirit than many a man of only half his years. We can none of us be experts in many fields of knowledge, or wise at first-hand about many matters of public concern. We should be willing, therefore, to repose faith in others and to select and follow safe leaders. There were some of us in the North who had found out long ago that we could not be altogether wise at first-hand about current Southern problems of politics, industry, education, race, and society. And, this being the case, we had learned to accept with good conscience and without misgiving the views of certain people who had won the right to speak as experts and with first-hand authority. The foremost of these men, upon the whole, was Dr. J. L. M. Curry. There are, indeed, men in Boston who take a deep interest in the race problems of the South and whose motives are sincere and altruistic; but none of them understand the situation half as well as did Dr. Curry. Fortunate, therefore, were those who were willing to sit at the feet of so great and so wise a man.



THE LATE JABEZ LAMAR MONROE CURRY, LL.D.

*A Group of
Successors.*

It was Dr. Curry's good fortune and great joy to live long enough to see younger men come forward in the South as true educational leaders, some of them in politics, some in teaching work or school administration, and some in other callings. Such men in politics are typified by the present brilliant, eloquent, and courageous Governor of Vir-

ginia, the Hon. A. J. Montague, and that effective and virile public character, the Hon. Charles Aycock, now Governor of North Carolina. Another is the new Governor of Tennessee, the Hon. James B. Frazier; and various others could be named in the Southern States—governors, state superintendents of education, and others in official life—working for educational reform



GOV. A. J. MONTAGUE, OF VIRGINIA.
(An eloquent advocate of education.)

and progress, not merely with zeal, but also with remarkable intelligence and efficiency. Among professional educators, on the other hand, the South can now present a galaxy of names of men qualified in every way. They are as broad as the continent in their patriotism. They are absolutely conscientious in their sense of duty toward the children of the inferior race. With their political associates of the type of men already named, they are as fit for high leadership as were the great men that the South gave us in the early days of the republic.

*Marks of
Concrete
Progress.*

When Dr. Curry entered on his great educational crusade as agent of the Peabody Fund there was no public-school system at all in any State of the South. He lived to see a public-school system established in every State. When he began, there was not a legislature in favor of free schools, nor a college or university willing to coöperate. He addressed the legislatures and urged school taxes and appropriations. He opposed the universities and schools in their conservative position. He saw the legislatures one by one yield to his arguments; and in due time the colleges and universities became not only reconciled to free public schools, but began one after another to establish departments for the training of public-school teachers. The legislatures would have given him almost any political honors; and

as for the universities, fourteen of them offered him their presidencies with flattering inducements. He had lived to see wonderful progress, and he had a right to believe in the future.

As almost the last of the grand old men who belonged equally to the former and the latter times, Dr. Curry was full of hope and encouragement as he looked about him, noted the advancement that the South had made since the war, and, further, noted the present tendencies. Now, it happens that the past few weeks have been full of a fresh discussion of race problems and tendencies in the South, and there has been a vast amount of pessimistic and unpleasant speaking and writing. We prefer to believe that much that has been said on both sides is due to misunderstanding, and does not represent actual conditions in true perspective. Dr. Curry's judgment was far too solid to be affected by temporary fluctuations of sentiment. He knew as a matter of fact that both races in the South had made marvelous progress since the war. He knew that in spite of various difficulties and so-called "problems," the present status of the South is much the best that the section has ever known. He saw that the continued superiority of the white race had merely to depend upon its taking due pains to be sure that it could truly meet every test by which superiority should be measured. He knew that the growth of the white race of the South in prosperity, intelligence, and character must inevitably benefit the negro race; while, on the other hand, he saw clearly that the improvement of the negro as a man and a worker was of unqualified advantage to the other race and to the whole South. In short, he proclaimed to the very last the gospel of mutual confidence and of unclouded hopefulness.

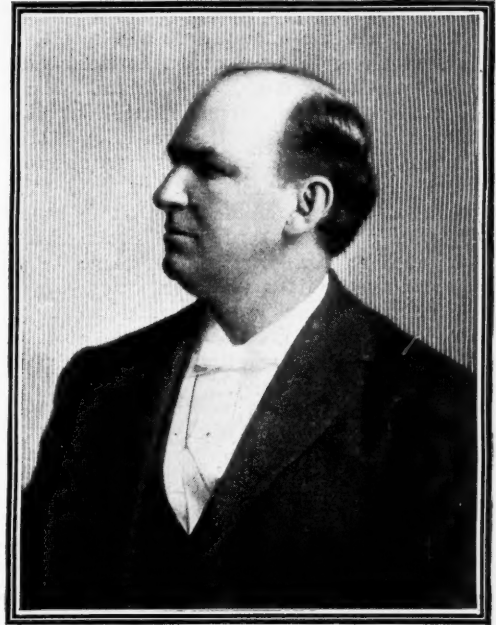
*Lessons for
North and
South.*

All that precedes has been said, not merely to eulogize a great leader who has finished his work and gone to his reward, although that, too, were well worth the doing for its own sake. It has been said here and now because Dr. Curry's career and his well-known views convey a lesson of peculiar timeliness to the people of all sections of this country. Dr. Curry stood for two things: first, for the complete acceptance of national unity; and, second, for hard, steady, and effective work to make his own part of the country worth living in for all its people. The concrete lesson for the North just at this moment is that the South can and must be trusted in the hands of its own leaders. In most of the Southern States, new laws exclude nearly all the negroes from the

elective franchise on the ground either of illiteracy or of non-payment of poll taxes. A very large percentage of the white men are also excluded under the same laws. On their face, those laws do not, except in some temporary provisions, discriminate as to race. In the application of the tests there is doubtless danger that competent negroes here and there may be excluded. The main situation, however, which some of the Northern newspapers rail at as "the disfranchisement of the negro race," is, legally and on its face, nothing different from that which exists in the State of Massachusetts, where illiterate citizens, regardless of race, are not allowed to vote. In no part of the South are franchise conditions half as bad as they are in the Northern Republican city of Philadelphia.

Hopeful Position of the Negro.

If it can be shown that Southern States are proposing to do their best in good faith, as we know that some of them are, to provide free schools for negro children as well as for white children, and if negroes, as well as whites, have a fair chance to earn money and save it, to buy and hold property, and to take part freely in the industrial and economic life, then it ought to be plain that the negro's future is in his own hands, and that his return to the polls and to office-holding can safely be left to time. At this very moment, in spite of the alarm expressed in certain Northern newspapers, the conditions surrounding the Southern negro are the most promising and hopeful of any that he has ever known. When Secretary Root in his speech before the Union League Club of New York last month remarked that negro suffrage in the South had been a



DR. CHARLES D. M'YER.

(President of the Normal School at Greensboro, N. C., and now the South's most indefatigable and eloquent worker for popular education.)

failure, he was not necessarily passing adverse criticism upon either race. He was merely reciting a fact in the history of our own times, than which no other fact could well be more obvious. But with a new and careful start on the basis of education, property, and good citizenship, there is no reason why negro suffrage should not gradually come to be successful and useful from the standpoint of both races. This one thing ought to be plain: if negro suffrage is not, in so far as it goes, for the good of the white citizens of the South, it can never be good for the negroes themselves. In other words, the political privileges of citizenship, if exercised wisely, must be for the good of the whole community; while if exercised unwisely, they cannot be for the good of any element whatsoever. Anybody in the North whose mind is disturbed by the Southern conditions, and who would like to help make them better, could be sure of aiding both races and receiving the thanks of both by contributing to the funds for current use at the disposal of such a body as the General Education Board.



LET EACH SWEEP HIS OWN SIDEWALK.
From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).

A Word to Negro Leaders.

Meanwhile, if certain people in the North have been unwise in their attitude of distrust toward the South, there are also lessons that both races in the South

should take deeply to heart. The best negroes of the South, for example, should ally themselves much more closely than heretofore with their best and wisest white neighbors. The intelligent negroes, moreover, should do all in their power to suppress the professional negro agitators, whose voices have been too much heard in the past month. Furthermore, the best negroes should also make it clear that they have no sympathy with such a futile bill as Senator Hanna introduced at Washington last month to provide pensions for all surviving ex-slaves. Finally, wise negroes should see that office-holding just now in the South does the race no good, and should adopt as their motto, "Less politics, more education and prosperity."

*A Hint Also
to White
Leaders.*

The best white men of the South, on the other hand, should form a society for the suppression of false and improper statements about the President of the United States. The South has never had a better friend in the White House than Theodore Roosevelt. The South has most criticised the President for a matter the facts of which it never understood. The White House at present is a very busy place; its occupant works from early morning till late at night. Many a man breaks bread there in the middle of the day whose sole errand

is business, and who never for a moment suspects that he is there out of social consideration. We happen to know that Mr. Booker Washington, on his way from New York to Alabama one day last year, broke journey at Washington in order to urge upon the President the advisability of appointing white Democrats of the best class to federal offices in the South, and to assure the President that the best negroes would not oppose such a policy. It may be that the President detained this influential negro at the luncheon hour to continue the political talk. It is not impossible, indeed, that food and drink were offered to the hard-working and unselfish man who was there giving his time with no thought of his own social, or political, or personal advantage. It is a subject that wise men of the South will see the good sense of dropping altogether.

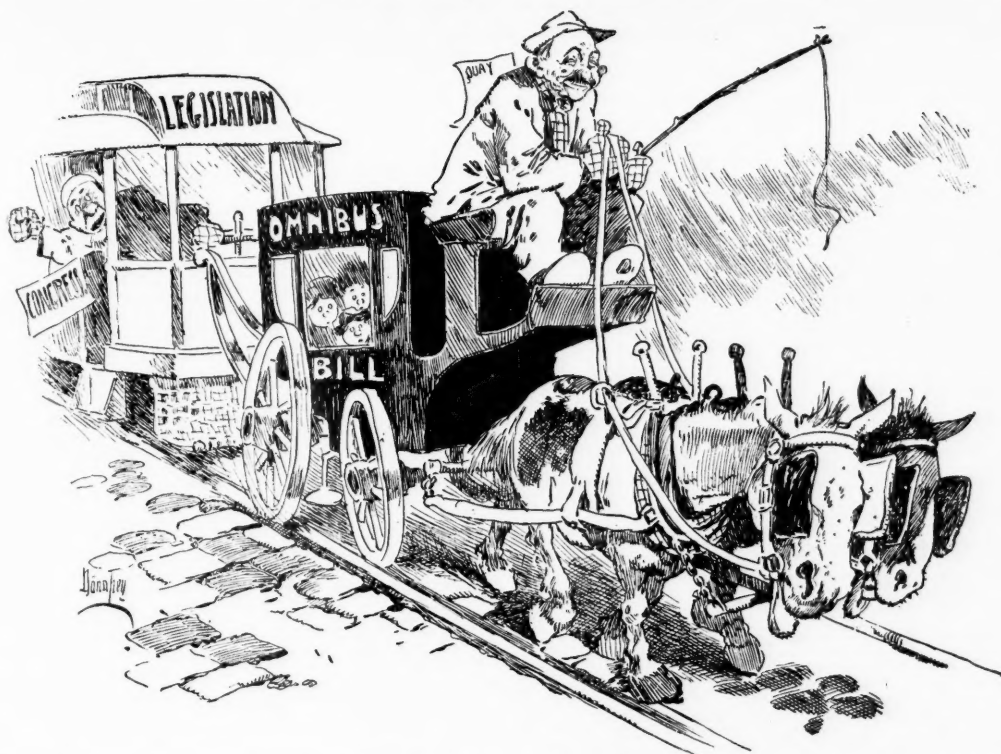
*Another
Disturbing
Incident.*

There are a few negro officials in the District of Columbia. Under Mr. Cleveland's two terms, it was customary to send out thousands of cards of invitation to certain routine, official White House receptions. Negro officials who thus received cards attended receptions in Mr. Cleveland's time; and no provision was made for excluding them by the clerks who continued to make out the lists under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. These are not matters with which the President of the United States in his personal capacity has anything at all to do. He is far too busy with weighty affairs of state. Even so much as to allude to the fact that there were numerous attacks made upon President Roosevelt in the South last month because some of these reception cards were said to have been used by negro officials at one of the White House "crushes" seems a thing to be apologized for. The South has had so much to bear in the past forty years that we must not blame it for taking a lot of things with intense seriousness; but we must also beg it at times to fall back for relief upon its own delicious sense of humor. If there is in the whole North any man with whom it ought to get on without misunderstanding, that man is Theodore Roosevelt. He knows full well that the South will work out its own destiny under its own leadership. Even to try to defend him against the Southern charge of appointing negroes to office is only to expose more ruthlessly the fact that he is the only President since the Civil War who has not been making such appointments. The Crum case was conspicuous because of its being the exception that illustrated the rule. The office-jobbing Republican politicians of the South might well have been expect-



A SKIAGRAPH OF WHAT SENATOR HANNA WAS THINKING ABOUT WHEN HE INTRODUCED HIS LATEST PENSION BILL.

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



CONGRESS (as motorman, to "omnibus" driver in front): "Hi! get off the track!"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

ed to criticise President Roosevelt; but it is hard to see what more Southern Democrats could have expected of a Republican in the White House. Even poor Crum seems destined to miss confirmation in the Senate; and if it thus turned out that his appointment should fail, President Roosevelt would be left with the record of exactly two negroes put in office in the entire South. The Indianola case was not a matter of appointment, but of allowing a McKinley appointee of faithful service to fill out the brief interval of an unexpired term.

"Statehood and Obstruction." The work of the Senate through the month of January and a large part of February was affected at all points by the protracted contest over the so-called "omnibus Statehood bill," this being the measure so devised as to admit as States into the Union, by a single vote, the three Territories of New Mexico, Arizona, and Oklahoma. It came to be recognized as true that a majority of the Senate was committed to the bill. There was a sense in which the opponents of the measure, in protracting debate and refusing to set a day for a vote, were "filibustering" and obstructing the

dispatch of business. While, therefore, Senator Beveridge, as chairman of the Committee on Territories, together with the majority of his colleagues on that committee and most of the leading Republicans of the Senate, were technically open to the charge that they were taking advantage of the Senate rules under which a minority may thwart the will of a majority, there was much more excuse for dilatory methods than is usual in such cases. The real obstructionists were those who had framed an improper bill, and by parliamentary ingenuity had secured for it a preferred place on the calendar.

A Vicious Method of Legislation.

An omnibus Statehood bill of this kind is objectionable on its very face. The experience of the country has abundantly shown that there is no danger that any Territory will be kept out of the Union after it has attained conspicuous fitness for admission. The danger is quite the other way. Nor is there good reason why any Territory should be admitted unless its own independent claims are clear enough to secure for it so strong a support among fair-minded men that no mere partisan argument can be effective against it. In the

old times, when the country was half slave and half free, and the tension between North and South was severe, there were thought to be reasons of political expediency why it was well to offset the admission of a Northern Territory by bringing in one farther to the Southward. But there has long since ceased to be any reason why in a matter of such gravity and importance as the creation of new States each proposition should not stand upon its own separate merits. The Democrats have for a good while made it a matter of party policy to support the idea of the immediate admission of Arizona and New Mexico. It is not with them a question of facts or of arguments, for they have committed themselves on strictly political grounds. But the opposition of Senator Beveridge and other Senators has not been based upon partisanship, but upon the facts, which show conclusively that as yet Arizona and New Mexico have not attained a development which entitles them to take rank with the States of the Union.

*The
Impartial
View.*

Our own position in arguing against the admission of Arizona and New Mexico has, of course, had nothing to do with politics. It rests upon the doctrine that Statehood should follow rather than precede a certain development of population, and of varied and well-established interests and institutions. The opinions expressed in these pages have not been agreeable to some of our subscribers and friends in Arizona and New Mexico, and for this we are sorry. We should be delighted to see such growth in those two Territories as would in due time entitle them to come into the Union with credit to themselves, and with distinct benefit to the country as a whole. But that time has not yet come. As for Oklahoma, it is both mischievous and absurd that it should be bound up with Arizona and New Mexico in a bill which simply represents the "log-rolling" method of accumulating support. The case of Oklahoma, from the disinterested point of view, has been a perfectly clear one all along. That Territory will be entitled to admission just as soon as the process of settling tribal affairs in the Indian Territory can be completed. Then the temporary administrative division which has of late separated the western part from the eastern part of what was formerly the Indian Territory can be done away with. There are enough enterprising Americans well established in the farming, grazing, and mineral areas lying north of Texas, south of Kansas, and west of Arkansas to entitle those areas to be brought into the Union at the earliest convenient moment, whether under the name of Oklahoma or under some other name.

*Grounds for
a Veto.*

The omnibus Statehood bill is an example of the most objectionable sort of coalition. It unites various unrelated interests,—most of them strictly private,—in order to secure the success of a series of propositions which have no natural connection with one another, and which could not stand successfully upon their own individual deserts. This is reason enough why the omnibus bill should not have passed, and reason enough why, if it had been passed by the Senate, it would have merited a prompt and ringing veto by the President. Mr. Roosevelt would have been fully justified in sending the measure back to Congress, saying that it did not come to him in such a form as to enable him to do his full constitutional duty, since it did not allow him to pass separately upon matters of permanent consequence which ought to have been embodied in separate bills. It was reported early in February that a compromise was to be arranged by virtue of which Arizona and New Mexico would be admitted as one State and Oklahoma would be admitted with provisos for the subsequent incorporation of what remains of the Indian Territory. But while this would have suited Senator Quay very well, and would have been acceptable to some other Senators representing special interests, it was not satisfactory to the people of the Territories themselves. Nor did it please those Democrats who regard the matter solely from the point of view of national politics and Presidential elections.

*"Trust"
Measures at
Washington.*

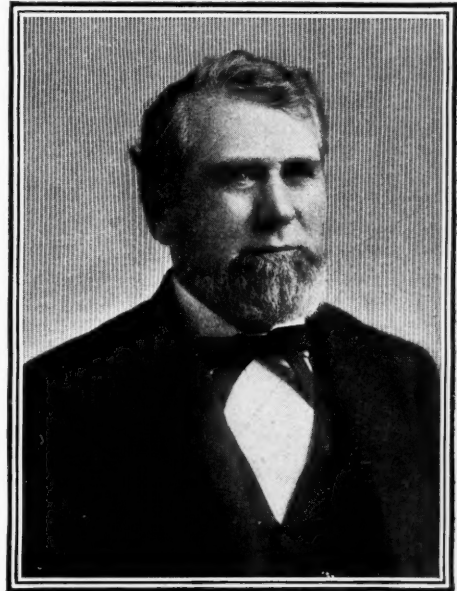
The great anti-trust agitation at Washington, which has supplied Congress with its principal theme during the session that ends on March 4, had some tangible, even if not wholly expected, results. The Littlefield publicity bill, as revised with the aid of Attorney-General Knox, was seemingly shelved, though it had an easy success in the House. In place of it there was adopted the so-called Nelson publicity amendment to the Department of Commerce bill. Finally, there was a brief measure known as the Elkins rebate bill. These two measures followed an earlier one which provided for more expeditious treatment in the courts of the pending and prospective litigation against illegal trusts and combinations. After all, these three measures represent a very substantial sum total of achievement from the point of view of everybody excepting those who take the more radical ground that trusts and great combinations should be strenuously assailed, and, if possible, crushed and destroyed. The new Department of Commerce and Labor must be allowed a reasonable time in which to find the

scope of its work. Included in it there is a Bureau of Corporations, with a chief called the Commissioner of Corporations at its head, drawing a salary of \$5,000 a year. This commissioner is to have power to investigate all companies excepting those that are within the purview of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The facts that he obtains will be at the disposal of the President, who may give as much or as little information to the public as he may think best. It will be a mistake to suppose that this bureau of corporations will at once accomplish anything radical, so far as the general public is concerned. It will, however, have a decided tendency to discourage the further formation of a class of unsound and dishonest combinations with which the country has to some extent been afflicted in the past three or four years.

*Practical
Unanimity.*

The Elkins bill, which had gone smoothly through the Senate, passed the House on February 13 by the remarkable vote of 241 to 6. The Department of Commerce bill had, on February 10, finally passed the House by a vote of 251 to 10, as amended in the conference committee; and upon the following day it went through the Senate in the space of a minute or two without a word of debate or dissent. Senator Nelson's so-called publicity amendment had for a few days aroused a considerable degree of interest through the reported attempt of certain large corporations to secure its modification or defeat. The report was current that the Standard Oil interests were opposed to it, and that the Steel Corporation interests were favorable to it. The opposition of the Standard Oil Company was said to be based upon its position in the great outlying markets of the world, where it has to meet the competition of the Russian petroleum monopoly. It is not necessary, however, under the Nelson amendment that the President should make public any information that would needlessly embarrass any American interest in the prosecution of its foreign trade. The bill simply puts into the hands of the President a power which may be used to such an extent as in his opinion may seem to be wise. The Elkins bill is one to strengthen the Interstate Commerce Act and such existing laws as are intended to provide against discrimination by railroads and common carriers. It is aimed at the giving and taking of rebates, whereby certain shippers obtain advantage over others. The measure which in connection with Mr. Littlefield's scheme the House had passed earlier in the session provided against rebate and discrimination by the great industrial corporations as well as the railroads; but this doc-

trine seems to have been too high for the Senate. There is nothing, therefore, in the legislation actually accomplished that bears at all upon the alleged practices of the trusts by which they "freeze out" local competition and dictate to retailers.

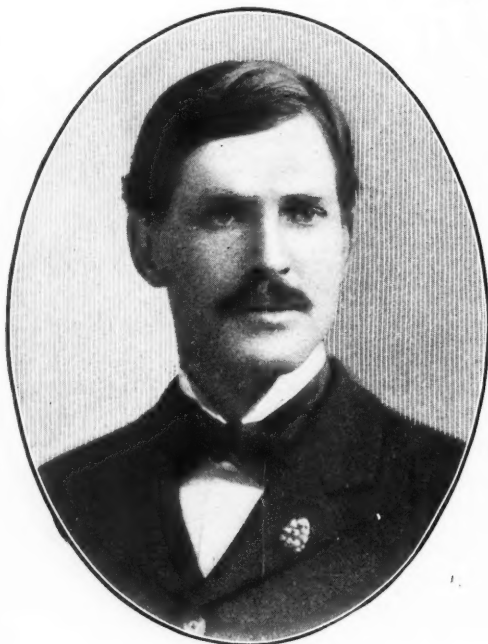


SENATOR NELSON, OF MINNESOTA.
(Prominent in "anti-trust" legislation.)

*Mr.
Cortelyou's
Promotion.*

For some time it had been fully understood that in case of the establishment of the new cabinet portfolio of Commerce and Labor, Mr. George B. Cortelyou was to be appointed as secretary. We publish elsewhere in this number an appreciative sketch of the career of the new member of the President's cabinet. Mr. Cortelyou has been in close and confidential relation to three Presidents, and has won the universal esteem of public men of all parties at Washington. His intimate knowledge of men and affairs must make him a valuable member of the cabinet circle, and his executive ability will render it quite certain that his department will be well organized and administered. For the work of that bureau of the department having to do with corporations, technical and expert qualifications would naturally have to be looked for in the commissioner at its head, rather than in the cabinet officer in charge of a department that embraces various other bureaus,—among them being the great labor bureau which Col. Carroll D. Wright has long conducted. It was announced last month

that the Hon. James R. Garfield, of Ohio, the second son of President Garfield, would be invited by the President to become commissioner of corporations. Mr. Garfield is already in Washington as a member of the Civil Service Commission, to which he was appointed last year. He is exceptionally well qualified to fill the new post.



HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(To be head of Bureau of Corporations.)

The Venezuela Settlement. It was, upon the whole, a very gratifying thing that agreements were entered into last month, after long haggling, by virtue of which the representatives of the allied British, German, and Italian governments united with Mr. Bowen, representing the Venezuelan Government, upon a plan by which it became possible to raise the oppressive blockade of the Venezuelan coast and put all matters of dispute into an orderly process of settlement. A long delay was made in the negotiations at Washington by the demand of the aggressive allied European powers that their money claims against Venezuela should have preferred treatment,—that is to say, that the equally just claims of American, French, Belgian, and other foreign creditors in Venezuela be all laid aside until English, German, and Italian claims were paid off. It had first been agreed that 30 per cent. of the receipts at the two principal custom-houses

of Venezuela,—namely, the one at La Guayra and the one at Puerto Cabello,—should be devoted to paying the debts due to foreign creditors. When this percentage had been fixed, the allies made their demand for preferred treatment. It is to be remembered that there was no priority in their claims, and that the French, more than any other government, was entitled to consideration through having already made a definite treaty with Venezuela.

As to Preferred Treatment.

It is as if an unfortunate business man, having fallen heavily into the debt of a dozen acknowledged creditors, had for a good while been discussing the amounts due, and the ways and means of payment. Whereupon three of the creditors conspire to go to his house at night, break his windows, and commit continuous and alarming depredations. By virtue of this violent behavior, they subsequently claim that they have established a plain right, both legal and ethical, to have all their debts paid before the other creditors have a chance at any of the debtor's resources. It is a question perfectly analogous to this that is by agreement to be referred to the Hague tribunal. The real parties to this arbitration are not Venezuela and the three pugnacious allies, but these allies and the other creditors, among them being France and the United States.

An American Triumph.

It is well to look the facts plainly in the face, and to recognize what is true beyond a doubt,—namely, that England and Germany have agreed to apply arbitration to certain phases of the Venezuelan situation solely through a wholesome respect for the power that lies behind public opinion in the United States. It is, indeed, possible that a more energetic mode of diplomacy at Washington might have spared Venezuela the misfortunes that have come through the war levied upon her by Germany and England, and at the same time saved the English Government from the scorn and humiliation it has had to endure at home for its ridiculous joint adventure, besides protecting American commerce from the losses it has had to suffer through the blockade of Venezuelan ports. Arbitration of the claims against Venezuela could perhaps have been secured better before the two greatest powers of Europe levied war upon the little republic than afterward. And if arbitration had come in the first instance, the preferential demands would not have arisen. But American forbearance has cost us no loss of prestige, and the outcome has been regarded in Europe as another evidence that the United States will see fair play in the Western Hemisphere.



NOT ENOUGH WOOL TO GO AROUND.—From the Herald (New York).

Terms of the Settlement. The negotiations at Washington were brought to an end by the signing of agreements,—or protocols, to use the technical title given to them by the diplomatists,—providing for the settlement of all phases of the quarrel between England, Germany, and Italy on the one hand and Venezuela on the other. These protocols really constituted a treaty of peace; for, both in theory and in fact, the allies had made war upon Venezuela for the offense of being dilatory and shiftless about paying debts due in Europe, some of these debts being of an exceedingly questionable nature. By the terms of the arrangement finally agreed upon on February 13, the claims of each country are to be dealt with by so-called mixed commissions,—that is to say, in the case of the Italian claims, for example, Venezuela will appoint commissioners to meet Italian commissioners, who will endeavor to audit and agree upon all outstanding claims on the part of the government or the citizens of Italy. Where points of disagreement arise, decision is to be given by an umpire to be named by President Roosevelt. Mr. Bowen, having negotiated the protocols with the allies, promptly arranged one with the United States providing for a mixed commission to adjust the American claims; and similar arrangements were made with other claimant governments.

What Goes to the Hague.

Provision is made for paying off the claims thus audited and adjudicated by the agreement that Venezuela shall set aside 30 per cent. of the customs receipts of its two principal ports for the liquidation of the debts due to various foreign nations. Precisely in what order of preference these claims shall be paid out of the fund thus created is a question that will go to the Hague tribunal, as has already been stated in preceding paragraphs. In all three of the protocols, it is expressly stated that the United States, France, Belgium, Holland, Spain, Sweden, Denmark, and Mexico are permitted to appear before the Hague court as creditors of Venezuela opposing the idea that their claims had been weakened and made inferior to those of England, Germany, and Italy because, forsooth, these three countries entered into a league to make war and seize the assets of Venezuela. It was the so-called "international conscience" that caused the failure of the coercion scheme and brought about in the end a peaceable and orderly form of settlement that could easily have been arranged in the beginning. The question that will come before the Hague tribunal is not so important in the amount of money involved as in its principles. The decision of the court will establish an important precedent.

*Germany's
Cash Bonus.*

A very curious incident marked the final stages of the negotiations at Washington. Originally, the allies had each demanded a cash payment of about four hundred thousand dollars on the part of Venezuela as preliminary to any settlement whatever. This was finally modified, however, to a demand for £5,500 each, or about twenty-seven thousand five hundred dollars, and this had been agreed upon by the representatives at Washington of each of the allies. At the last moment, the German Government refused to sustain its Washington representative on this point and demanded a cash payment of \$340,000. Apparently, the intention at Berlin was to make a complication which would have defeated the negotiations, protracted the blockade, and prevented the reference of anything at all to The Hague. The result, however, was exactly the opposite of what Berlin had seemingly expected. The British Government had become so completely disgusted with the alliance, and was so eager to get out of its scrape before Parliament should meet and call the ministry to account, that it urged the immediate acceptance of the protocols, regardless of Germany's altered cash demands. It seems to be commonly agreed that the British claims against Venezuela are far more valid than the German; and up to a certain point the same thing is probably true of the Italian claims. Yet the arrangement concluded gave to Germany a

preliminary cash payment of about three hundred and forty thousand dollars, while England and Italy were glad to accept the paltry sum of \$27,500 each.

*A Highly
Satisfactory
Outcome.*

Since all valid claims will now within a reasonable period be adjudicated and paid in any case by virtue of the method we have already outlined, this preliminary cash payment represents nothing at all except an arbitrary exaction. At Berlin, a great victory is claimed, while the rest of the world smiles in derision at England's outcome. Germany's position is commonly regarded as that of the greedy, spoiled, quarrelsome boy at the boarding-school table who demands the largest and hottest potato, and insists upon being served first,—his better-bred and higher-spirited comrades looking on without anger, but with undisguised contempt. Of the great powers having claims against Venezuela, France and the United States have behaved with equanimity, good manners, and good sense. They have kept the goodwill of the Venezuelans and the whole world, and will in due time obtain every penny of their claims that is honestly due. The three allied governments, on the other hand, have used methods which have earned the lasting ill-will, not only of Venezuela, but of the whole of South America, besides winning the scorn of the civilized public opinion of Europe and North America,



OFF TO THE HAGUE.—From the *Herald* (New York).



SIGNOR EDMONDO MAYOR DES PLANCHES.
(Italian minister to the United States.)

and the merciless ridicule of all countries. They in the end will have obtained, meanwhile, neither more nor less than all the other claimant powers, —namely, a payment of their claims as finally adjudicated by fair umpires.

*The
Important
Feature.*

Even if the Hague tribunal should allow the allies their demanded preference in the order of approach at the paymaster's window, this advantage would amount to nothing important in the pecuniary sense, because the preferred claims of the other creditors would be perfectly safe, and, meanwhile, would draw interest at a fair rate. What is by far the most important part of all this agreement, from the business man's standpoint, has not been sufficiently noted by the newspapers. It is the part which arranges that President Roosevelt shall name the umpires to settle the validity of disputed claims. It is well known that many of the demands made by the Europeans, particularly by the Germans, are speculative and extortionate. Such claims,—German, English, and Italian,—will now have to be overhauled by an American umpire, whose business it will be to see that they are correct before they pass on for liquidation. Thus, Venezuela comes out of the situation most fortunately. She has always claimed, and with apparent sincerity, that she had no desire or intention to repudiate any just debts, and would welcome an opportunity to submit all claims to

arbitration. The claims will now have to undergo fair inspection, and the plan of creating a fund for paying them off is an excellent one for all concerned. Venezuela has, indeed, suffered grievous wrongs in the seizure of her vessels, the blockade of her coast, and the bombardment of her fortresses; but, since these things are done under the technical sanction of the laws of war, Venezuela can bring no claims. It should, of course, be understood in this country that the representatives at Washington of the three allied governments have conducted themselves most admirably throughout the negotiations, and are in no way to be held responsible by American public opinion for the errors and follies of their principals at London, Berlin, and Rome.

*The Panama
Treaty.*

The treaty with Colombia providing for the Panama Canal was duly signed on January 22 by the Secretary of State, acting for the United States, and Dr. Herran, the Colombian chargé d'affaires, acting for his government. The protracted discussion of the Statehood bill delayed action upon the treaty in the Senate, but it was certain from the very first that it would be ratified. The treaty occasioned great rejoicing in Paris, and on the Panama Isthmus. It meant \$40,000,000 to the French Panama company out of the Treasury of the United States, and to the Isthmus it meant everything for the future that could possibly be hoped for. The giving up of the Nicaragua route, and the revival of the abandoned French enterprise by the United States Government, with its unlimited resources, was news almost too good to be believed at Colon. Besides paying the French company \$40,000,000, our government agrees to pay the Republic of Colombia a bonus of \$10,000,000 and a regular yearly payment forever afterward of \$250,000. There is created by virtue of this treaty a so-called "zone of territory" ten kilometers (about six miles) wide. The United States obtains no governmental authority over this strip, the treaty expressly confirming the sovereignty of Colombia over it, Colombia also remaining in full control of the cities of Panama and Colon, at either end of the canal. The ordinary judiciary tribunals within the canal zone are to be those of the Republic of Colombia. Somewhat on the plan of our consular jurisdiction in Oriental countries, the United States may establish tribunals for the hearing of cases involving our own citizens; but in case of a controversy between a citizen of the United States and a citizen of Colombia, the matter would have to go before a joint tribunal composed of American and Colombian judges. We assume various sanitary obligations.

*Uncle Sam
Promises Al-
legiance to the
Colombian Flag.*

It was the instruction of Congress in the Spooner Act that, in case the President should find the title of the French company such as to justify the expenditure of \$40,000,000 in buying up that concern, a treaty should be negotiated with Colombia for the perpetual control of a strip of land in the territory of the Republic of Colombia, and also for jurisdiction over such strip, etc. But the Colombian negotiators have succeeded in putting the American Government into the position of an ordinary private commercial company. If the terms of this treaty be strictly observed, it will not be permissible to float the American flag at any point on or adjacent to the greatest public work ever constructed by this government,—or, for that matter, by any other government in the history of the world. Uncle Sam becomes a mere alien tenant. He promises faithful allegiance to the Colombian flag, in return for being allowed to invest money in a canal. We build our great canal under the sovereignty of a republic of so wretched plight that it has no legitimate government, and has had none for years past. We have been solemnly told at Washington that Colombia, under her constitution, could not alienate territory ;

instruments should be regarded as the valid one, so totally devoid of normal republican government has Colombia been for some twenty years past. The Isthmus of Panama, several weeks remote from the capital of the Republic of Colombia, is in a chronic state of anarchy. We undertake in our treaty to perpetuate, even inside the six-mile strip through which the canal is to go, the judicial tribunals and general municipal and police authority of Colombia.

*The Better
Method.*

When one protests against this sort of thing at Washington, one is told, rather cynically, that we do not really mean it, but that this gives us a foothold, and, that once down there at work, we shall gradually improve our advantages and usurp what we may need. It may not work out in just that way, however. It would have been much better to purchase outright the isthmian region, which we could easily have done ; put the American flag there in its proper place ; give the people of the towns of Panama and Colon decent government under American authority ; and assume openly and honorably the exercise of that jurisdiction and control which every politician at Washington and every officer of our navy tells us in private that we cannot avoid undertaking to exercise. The only true reason why there is any propriety in having the United States Government build an isthmian canal at the cost of the public treasury lies in the strategic value of the project as providing for the better defense of our seacoasts. A canal built merely to facilitate international trade, or to compete with the transcontinental railroads, should be built, like the Suez Canal, by a commercial company on business considerations.



A CANAL THIS TIME, AT ALL HAZARDS.

UNCLE SAM: "Another interruption and there'll be trouble."—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

and yet we are all perfectly well aware that she is not governed, and has not been for years, under any constitution at all, and that even if constitutional government should ever be resumed, it is in doubt which of two or three paper

*An
Historical
Contrast.*

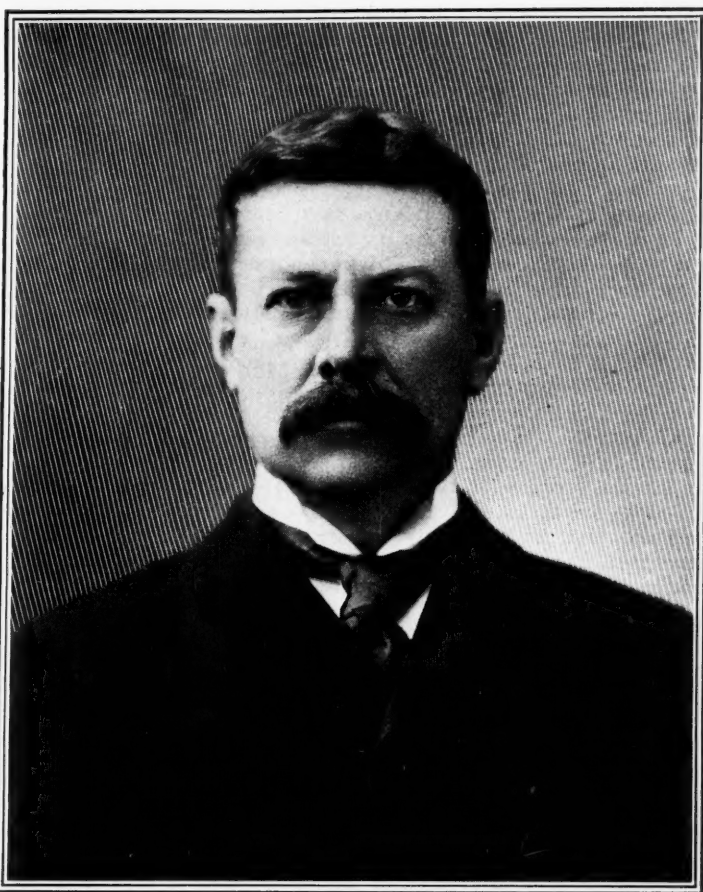
A hundred years ago, the American desire to obtain free navigation of the Mississippi River to its mouth had the same sort of hold upon the American mind as the demand for an American ship canal to connect our Atlantic and Pacific seaboards has had within recent years. We were a young and a small nation in 1803, but we faced our situation, grasped the opportunity, and got free navigation to the mouth of the Mississippi by making the great Louisiana Purchase. If that particular problem had arisen in 1903 instead, it is to be feared that the gentlemen at Washington would have solved it in a very different manner. Jefferson had the imagination and foresight to buy the river outright, and the area of a dozen great States besides—all for \$15,000,000. But our present-day diplomacy would have regarded such a scheme as crude and amateurish. It

would have negotiated, preferably, for a long-term right of Mississippi transit. It would, perhaps, have offered the \$15,000,000 as an initial payment for a limited right of navigation, and would have proposed to pay France and Spain in perpetuity an annual tribute of, perhaps, \$250,000. In addition to this, we should doubtless have agreed, at our own expense, to construct jetties and improve and maintain river navigation at our sole expense for the equal benefit of all foreign powers. What Jefferson did was to make the Mississippi an American river. And he certainly would have made an American canal at Panama,—that is to say, he would have dug it on American territory or not at all. Uncle Sam now goes to Panama as a private property-holder, disavowing his attributes and character as a sovereign. And yet we are proposing to celebrate this year the centenary of the Louisiana Purchase!

*A Strong
Navy versus
Treaties.*

By one recent treaty, we have

abdicated in advance the right to use our own canal for the defense of our coasts in time of war, while under the new treaty with Colombia we have expressly renounced the right inherent in a sovereign government to acquire territory by proper means in the future. But at Washington they tell us that we shall pay no attention to either of these treaties when emergencies make them inconvenient. Treaties, however, are awkward things, especially when they undertake to bind the policy of future generations. The American people are scrupulous about keeping their agreements; and they would do well, therefore, to be a great deal more particular about the sort of engagements they allow gentlemen at Washington to make for them. We have at Washington just now an immense fervor for a powerful navy; and last month witnessed a most determined demand for a colossal new shipbuilding programme, to match or excel the programme by which the German Emperor



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HON. WM. H. MOODY, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

proposes to make his navy second only to England's. The Naval Advisory Board under Admiral Dewey is urging this new naval programme, the Naval Committee of the House under Chairman Foss is working for it, President Roosevelt takes naturally and kindly to it, and the new Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Moody, is a warm exponent of the doctrine of a big navy with a corresponding increase in our force of officers and sailors. We have already a good many ships under construction, most of which are coming on in a languid fashion in the yards of the contracting shipbuilders.

*Navies at
Home and
Abroad.*

The naval bill as introduced in the House by Chairman Foss, last month, called for the addition of three big battleships and one first-class armored cruiser. We have been developing our navy quite steadily

for a number of years past, but have not been working toward the fulfillment of a previously declared programme. In France and Germany, on the other hand, large general schemes have been provided, that of Germany looking ahead as far as the year 1916. The French programme adopted several years ago was for a period ending about four years from the present time. The Russians some four or five years ago adopted and made public a seven years' programme which is now approaching completion, and a new scheme is soon to be formulated. The Italians laid down a programme to cover the period from 1901 to 1912. Of course, our own naval board of construction at Washington has had a certain theory of a matured and symmetrical navy in mind, and successive Secretaries of the Navy and naval committees of Congress have been to some extent guided in their proposals from year to year by the theories of our naval experts. The list of battleships that we have built or have authorized now amounts to twenty, not including the three that were recommended in the bill pending last month. The number of armored cruisers built, started, or authorized is about sixteen.

*Germany's
Alleged
Rivalry.*

The Germans are showing the utmost energy in building both merchant and war vessels. The development of their merchant marine is interestingly described in an article which we publish in this number of the REVIEW by a well-known authority on the American merchant marine, Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, of Boston. It is persistently reported that Germany is striving to outstrip the United States as a naval power. As preparatory to a greatly extended programme of warship-building, it was stated last month that the great national shipyards at Danzig, Kiel, Wilhelmshaven, and Stettin were to have greatly enlarged facilities. It is not necessary to assume that Germany's great energy has any hostile intentions. It is true, on the other hand, that in view of the vastness of American trade, commerce, and industry, we could well afford to go on with the work of building up our navy. If our ships had been more numerous and our naval power better known, we should have been spared the cost of the war with Spain, and should have succeeded in liberating Cuba without firing a shot. Our influence in securing arbitration, last month of the claims against Venezuela was largely due to an enhanced respect felt for us in Europe by reason of our demonstrated military and naval strength. A still larger navy would probably have the effect of a not too expensive form of insurance against the danger of war.

*Germany's
Aims and
Attitude.*

It has been frequently argued in these pages that the German Government contemplates only the most friendly relations with the government of the United States, and that it has disavowed any intention to acquire territory in South America. Germany has too much on her hands in the Old World to seek trouble in the New. For one thing, the German nation is in some danger of being divided against itself, so intense is the strain between the Emperor and his supporters and the Social Democrats, who now form the largest party in the empire. German population and industry are growing remarkably, and it is not strange that German ambition should look toward territorial expansion at some future time. But the domestic problems that loom large on the horizon are destined to claim Germany's chief attention for a considerable period. When Germany's new tariff schedules, many of which are at stupendously high rates, come into effect, next year, there will be renewed dissensions at home because of the increased price of foodstuffs.

*Pan-German-
ism and Euro-
pean Unrest.*

The so-called pan-Germanic ideas have had much discussion of late in all parts of Europe. The leaders of the Germanic League have become rather frank and open in the expression of their views regarding the future acquisition by Germany of Holland, Belgium, and Luxemburg. But the apprehensions of France have been more keenly aroused by the growth of the pan-Germanic idea in the German-speaking parts of Austria. The Emperor of Austria has been in unusually bad health, and there is fear lest, in case of his death, the Austrian dominion may go to pieces. In such a case, Germany would, of course, hope to make large acquisitions of territory and population. This, in the French view, would dangerously disturb the European balance of power. There has been great debating in the French Chambers over subjects of this kind, the general result being a triumph of those who hold steady-going views and demand friendly relations, ultimate disarmament, and the support of peace and the Hague tribunal. France is fortunate just now in having in public life a great number of men of remarkable brilliance, intelligence, and good sense. The greatest of French Socialists, M. Jean Jaurès, has been elected to the vice-presidency of the Chamber of Deputies with the cordial assent of the ruling Republican majority. All admit that Jaurès is a man of lofty patriotism, and he is probably the most eloquent orator in France, if not in all Europe. He stands for industrial and social progress and the welfare of the plain people, and is opposed to militarism.



M. JAURÈS, FRENCH SOCIALIST AND STATESMAN.

The Alaskan Boundary Treaty. The British Parliament opened on February 17; and in his speech from the throne the King opened with a reference to the Venezuelan affair, adding that he rejoiced to say "that a settlement has now been arrived at which has justified the blockading powers in bringing all hostile naval operations immediately to a close." His next reference was to the Alaskan boundary matter, of which he said: "A treaty for the providing of a reference of these questions to an arbitral tribunal has been signed and ratified." The two governments primarily interested in the Alaskan boundary question are those of Canada and the United States. The English Government has only a nominal and indirect interest in the details of the matter, its chief motive and desire being to have all grounds of controversy removed. At the head of the Canadian government is the prime minister, Sir Wilfrid Laurier; at the head of the government of the United States is President Roosevelt. No arrangement for dealing with this boundary question between Alaska and the United States could be made without the participation of these two heads of the governments concerned. To the surprise of the public in both countries, it was announced toward the end of January that a treaty had

been signed at Washington for the speedy settlement of all outstanding differences about this important question. Great interest was expressed because, both in Canada and the United States, the subject is one about which thousands of intelligent people have strong convictions. It was well known that President Roosevelt had, both before and after his coming into his present high office, repeatedly expressed himself as absolutely opposed to the submission to arbitration of the right of the United States to continue in possession of its present Alaskan coast strip. About nothing had Mr. Roosevelt ever been more frank or more uncompromising than about this Alaskan question.

The Washington Version of the Treaty. When, therefore, it was announced from Washington that some kind of an agreement had been signed between the Secretary of State and the British ambassador,—on behalf of President Roosevelt on the one hand and the Canadian government on the other,—there was very lively and eager interest upon the part of the newspapers and the public as to the nature of the arrangement. A treaty, when signed, must go to the Senate for ratification; and courtesy to that body requires that its exact text should not be given to the public until the Senate has had an opportunity to consider it. President Roosevelt and the State Department, however, felt at liberty to explain that there had not been the slightest particle of retreat from the President's well-known position, and that the treaty did not in any sense jeopardize the American *status quo* on the Alaskan coast. The public was informed, indeed, that the agreement as entered into was a great triumph for our Department of State in upholding the American position, and was a corresponding defeat for the Canadians.

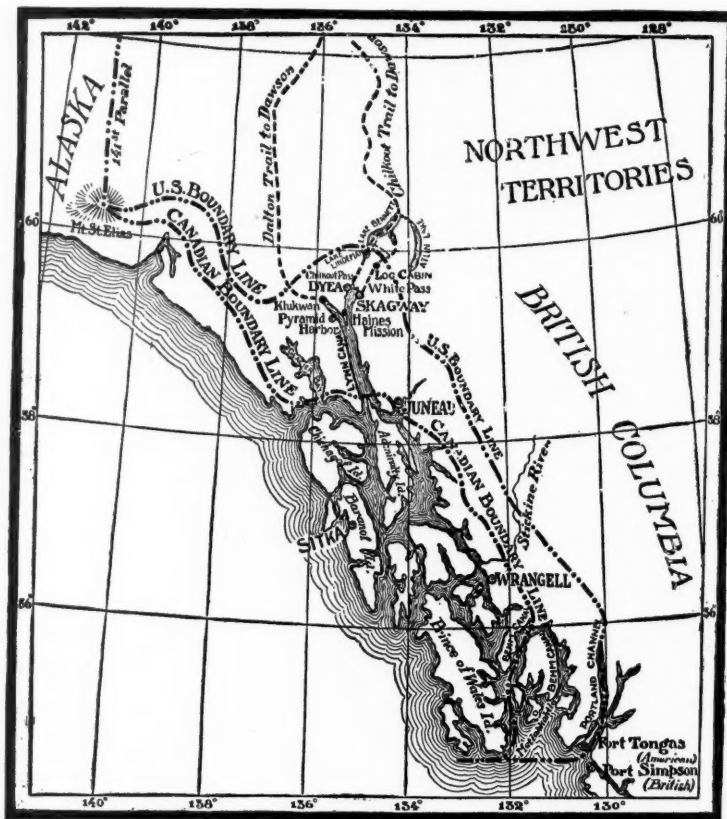
The Ottawa Version. While these explanations were going out from Washington, it happened that Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the most responsible representative of the other party in interest, was making diametrically opposite statements. He was expressly declaring that every phase of the controversy about the Alaskan boundary, including all the claims and contentions urged by the Canadians, were by this new treaty submitted to unlimited and unrestricted arbitration. Thus, at the very moment it was signed, the interpretations put upon the treaty by the two men most responsible for it were as different from each other as black is from white. If an agreement designed to do away with differences and to secure final settlements can, at the outset, be viewed so differently by

the two men who above all others should understand it in exactly the same way, it can hardly be an "agreement" in any useful sense of that word. Certainly, it would seem that its ratification in the Senate should not have taken place without opportunity for the asking and answering of questions intended to promote a reasonable understanding of what was intended.

It was well known that a good many Senators were in grave doubt, and that a number wished to ask questions, and expected to make speeches. In view of this fact, it was announced that such opposition was developing that the treaty could not be ratified. This opinion was expressed by the chief friends and supporters of the treaty; and the general public, as well as the opposing Senators, were informed that consideration would be deferred until an extra session of the Senate, to be called after the 4th of March. Under these circumstances, on the afternoon of February 11, when the time of the Senate had been allotted to a long and formal speech on another subject, and the chamber would naturally have been empty, resort was had to what was called "a clever strategy." In the absence from the room of nearly all those who would have opposed the treaty, or would at least have insisted upon a thorough discussion of it, an executive session was called, the matter was brought up for instant consideration, some perfunctory remarks were made, a vote was taken, and the treaty was declared ratified without a roll-call or a listing of the yeas and nays. The promoters of the measure in the Senate assured their colleagues that the arrangement was not for arbitration, and that it did not call in question the American position. A very proper demand for reconsideration made the next day was refused.

The Matter in Dispute.

It is to be remembered that the practical matter in dispute is the ownership of the two flourishing American towns and seaports of Dyea and Skagway, with a strip thirty miles wide behind them, and a long coast belt. The question will be better understood by reference to the map which we present herewith. The boundary line, as it exists and as it has been universally recognized for nearly eighty years, lies well inland. Since the Klondike has become important, the Canadians have much desired a seaport on our coast; and they have adopted the theory that the language of the treaty of 1825 is fairly capable of a construction which would throw the boundary line across that splendid arm of the sea known as the Lynn Channel (commonly misnamed Canal), and thus



THE CONFLICTING BOUNDARY LINES NOW TO BE ARBITRATED.

(The Canadian claim interprets the treaty as meaning the line from headland to headland of the coast. It thus includes in Canadian territory not only Dyea and Skagway, but almost the entire length of Lynn Canal, also Glacier Bay, in which the famous Muir glacier is situated, Juneau, at which the famous Treadwell mine is located, and other important points along the coast at present occupied and controlled by the United States. The United States boundary ascends Portland Channel; the Canadian ascends the northern arm of the Behm Canal.)

give them direct access to the ocean. This new treaty has been secured through the active efforts of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The whole subject is one in which the Canadians had nothing to lose and everything to gain. It is very much as if they should begin to reassert their old-time claim to the northern part of Maine, as to which they would feel that they had gained a very considerable point if the United States had admitted that there was a question as to its rights, and had therefore made its possession and sovereignty hinge afresh upon the decision of a legal tribunal. It is to be remembered that in the Alaskan case we were in undisturbed and unmenaced possession; that the world at large did not regard us as in the slightest degree aggressors. As regards the Lynn Channel and that region in particular, it had come to be the accepted American idea that we should in any case reserve our possessions there from consideration by any joint commission appointed merely to direct a survey and to fix the monuments to mark physically the line as shown in a general way on the maps.

We Are Arbitrating Everything.

But Sir Wilfrid Laurier, whose treaty this is and who must be supposed to understand its meaning, in his declaration as given in the *London Times* in answer to the question whether the ports of Dyea and Skagway were submitted to the arbitrators by this treaty, replied:

The whole question is submitted to a commission of six jurors to decide on the definition of the boundary line as set forth in the Russian treaty of 1825. The treaty goes to arbitration without any reservations whatever. The arbitrators are to decide where the boundary between Canada and Alaska should be located according to the wording and intent of the treaty.

The government at Washington tells us that the new agreement does not provide for arbitration; the government at Ottawa tells us that it does provide for arbitration and for nothing else. If this were a mere quibble about a word, we should not waste space, even so much as to make allusion to it. Nothing could be further from our wish or purpose than to be hypercritical. But it is to be feared that there is a good deal more involved than a mere difference about the use of a word. There was printed for the aid of the Senate an explanatory statement by the Hon. John W. Foster, himself once Secretary of State and of long record as connected with our foreign affairs. Mr. Foster had some part in devising this new agreement, his views were treated by the administration as authoritative, and he has since been made our agent and chief counsel in the case. Mr. Foster says:

The treaty signed by Secretary Hay and Ambassador

Herbert, now pending in the Senate, does not submit any American territory to the adjudication of arbitrators, but creates a commission of three American and three British experts to determine where the line between Alaska and British Columbia should be drawn, as laid down by the treaty of 1825, and, if they can agree, to mark the line.

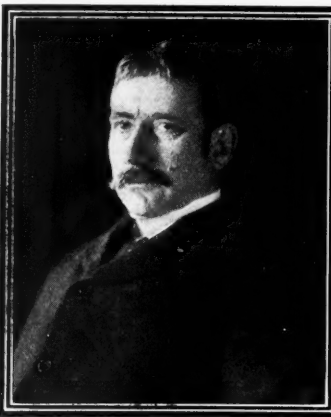
But it happens that the text of the treaty bears out Laurier, not Foster. If Mr. Foster were right, it would all be quite analogous to the peace commission that concluded negotiations with Spain at Paris in settlement of the issues of the war. Our commissioners at Paris were a group of men who acted as a body and were under constant instructions from the President and the State Department at Washington. President Roosevelt will appoint three men, who are to meet three appointed by the British Government, to pass upon the Canadian claims. But the three Americans are not to be negotiators, as the newspaper correspondents at Washington were instructed to inform the country. They are to act, in the explicit language of the treaty, as "impartial jurors." Once appointed, they are entirely beyond the control of the President and the Secretary of State, and are bound to decide the questions brought before them without prejudice. The body of judges thus created was, indeed, explicitly called an "arbitral tribunal" in the treaty itself when it was signed by Secretary Hay and Ambassador Herbert, though the word "arbitral," at the request of our government, was subsequently stricken out. A particular red apple, however, remains a red apple even if one should merely call it an apple; and this body remains an arbitral tribunal even though it be called merely a tribunal.

In Case of a Tie Vote.

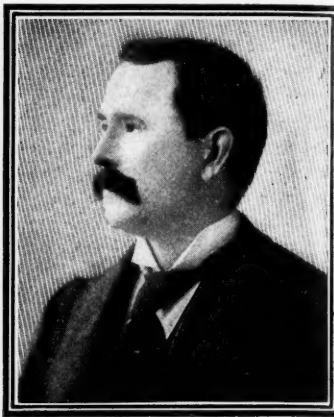
It is simply to be said that the Alaskan boundary has been as truly and unqualifiedly submitted to arbitration as it could possibly have been. The six appointees, once appointed, cease to represent their respective countries. They become judges of the matters submitted to them; each judge must act for himself, and all points are to be decided by a majority. Thus, if a single one of the judges appointed by President Roosevelt should conclude that the Canadian construction of the treaty of 1825 is just, we shall sacrifice valuable territory that we have long held in undisturbed possession, and that the Canadians have only lately claimed. It is true that our government holds that we do not stand the slightest chance of losing, and that the people at Washington have declared this to be a scheme for helping the British Government to get rid of the annoying clamor of the Canadian Tories.



Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts.



Elihu Root, Secretary of War.



Senator Turner, of Washington.

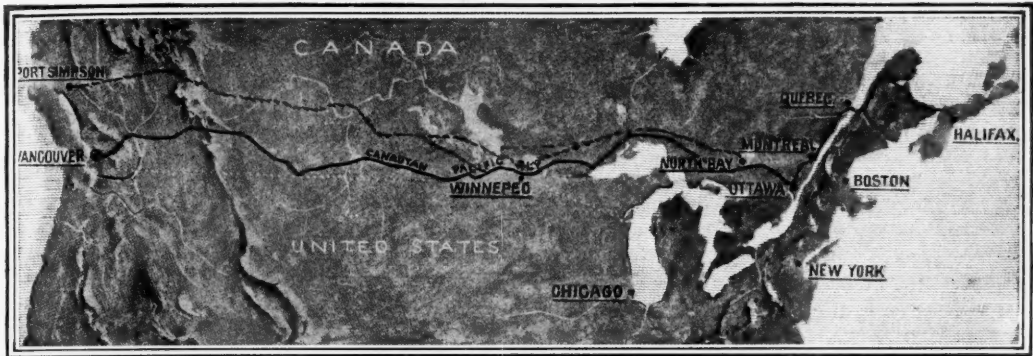
THE THREE AMERICANS SELECTED LAST MONTH AS MEMBERS OF THE ALASKA TRIBUNAL.

At the very worst, we are told at Washington, the court will stand three to three, and then we shall be just as well off as we were before, and shall continue to hold our possessions. But, most certainly, we shall not be as well off as before, for we shall ourselves have given the whole world reason to believe that we attach serious importance to a Canadian claim that we have heretofore pronounced to be purely speculative and frivolous. The public opinion of the world might then very fairly demand that a seventh member of the tribunal be chosen to act as umpire and give a final decision. The *London Times* declares that, in the case of an even division of this arbitration board of six, "we only obtain a striking evidence of the exceeding complexity and difficulty of the question, and can then resort to the ordinary form of arbitration—to cut a knot that cannot be untied." In other words, it is assumed as a matter of course in England that in case of an even division of the six judges the matter would go to further arbitration before a court so constituted that it would have to decide one way or the other. This, our statesmen say, they will never allow; but how it is in justice to be avoided is not easy to understand. For, if the Canadian contentions are creditable enough to be submitted to a learned tribunal of judges, they are certainly entitled to a decision, by such a tribunal.

Nature of American Tenure. When this treaty, on Wednesday, February 11, was suddenly called up for action and ratified, in the absence of those Senators who would have demanded a consideration of it, our hold upon our Alaskan coast strip was thenceforth by a wholly changed tenure. Up to that moment it was

ours by virtue of the simple fact that we had bought it from Russia, had taken possession of it, had established our flag there, had maintained custom-houses and post-offices, and had been in continuous exercise of governmental sovereignty. The treaty of 1825 might have had a hundred different interpretations, but that was of no consequence to us in this century, when our sovereignty at Dyea and Skagway was as unqualified as our sovereignty at New York or New Orleans. There was a clear understanding of what Russia owned, and of what we purchased and paid for. This understanding was equally clear in Russia, England, Canada, and the United States, and everybody knows what it was. The Canadian official maps all show it (except some of those made very recently), as still do the maps made in all other countries. If, a good many years after our purchase of Alaska in 1867, our government had cared to go to the expense of sending surveying parties to erect boundary monuments,—a matter that the English Government urged our government to do,—the line would have been established on the ground without the slightest pretense on anybody's part that the general American claim was incorrect.

A Compromise Expected. The *London Times*, which is exceedingly amiable in its discussion of all this matter, apparently assumes that Canada is right in the geographical contention, but that in view of the present warm relations between Britain and America, as "nations who count solid friendship better than territory," there is a chance that the United States will be let off with a "political compromise." The cheerful assumption at Washington that a happy



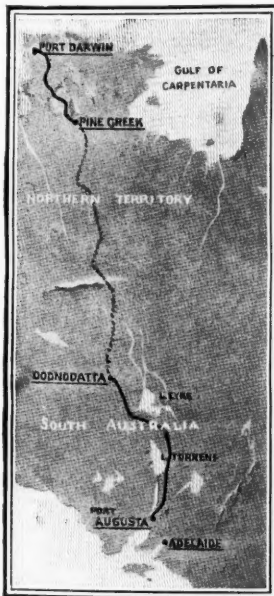
THE DOTTED LINE SHOWS PROPOSED NEW RAILROAD ACROSS CANADA.

way has been found to end the Alaskan boundary question may, indeed, turn out to be true. But there is also some reason to fear that this is the beginning of a real Alaskan dispute, whereas heretofore the question has not been a serious one. Arbitration is a good thing, and has a great part to play in making the world better and more civilized. Therefore, care should be taken not to do it injury by trying to apply it in matters where it is not primarily applicable. Above all, let us be sure of resorting to it in good faith. We are in danger of being accused in Canada of taking a course much worse than the bold and frank one of refusing outright to entertain their geographical claims.

Canadian Progress. T h e
C a n a -

Canadian Progress. T h e
Canadians,
meanwhile, are showing splendid energy in all directions. They are promoting immigration, and are especially pleased with the success of their efforts to induce a good class of American farmers to occupy the freely granted lands of the far Northwest. Many thousands of Western Americans are preparing to go to British Columbia, Manitoba, and the Northwest Terri-

tories this coming spring. The Canadians, more-
 over, are projecting a new transcontinental rail-
 road,—parallel to the Canadian Pacific and some
 distance north of it, as indicated by the dotted line
 on the little map presented herewith. This new
 road, under the auspices of the Grand Trunk
 system, will have a total length from Quebec to
 Fort Simpson of 2,830 miles, and it is to have
 easier grades than the Canadian Pacific. The
 Canadian Parliament will meet on the 12th of
 the present month. It has an enormous pro-
 gramme of business before it. While New York
 State is in a tangle over its proposal to enlarge
 the Erie Canal, our Canadian friends go straight
 ahead with their
 elaborate water-
 way projects.
 Elsewhere in this
 number we print
 a short article from
 the pen of Mr.
 Thomas C. Martin
 on a new electrical
 power plant in
 Canada which ri-
 vals the exploita-
 tion of Niagara
 Falls. Americans
 are taking a great
 interest in Cana-
 dian resources as
 a good place for
 investment. Now
 that the Alaskan
 boundary treaty
 has been signed,
 there is some
 chance that the
 dormant joint
 commission, of
 which Senator



PROPOSED ROAD ACROSS AUSTRALIA.



ROUTE OF "CAPE TO CAIRO"
RAILROAD PROJECT.

Fairbanks is the American head, may get together again to settle other outstanding North American questions. If this commission should find a way to bring about a large measure of reciprocity between the United States and Canada, it would make for itself lasting fame.

*The British
Empire in
General.*

British-Empire matters in general are prosperous. We publish elsewhere a good article by the Hon. Hugh H. Lusk on the work of the first parliament of the great Australian Commonwealth. It is hard for us in this country to realize that the Australians themselves as yet know little or nothing about a large interior section of their great island. An important project under discussion is that of a railroad to go straight across Australia, to connect roads already built at either end. The diagram on the foregoing page will show by the black lines how much has been built, and by the dotted line the connecting link that is proposed. A vast land grant is to go to the builders of this Australian line, and the government of the Commonwealth has the option to buy the railroad upon its completion. English opinion is highly conflicting as to Mr. Chamberlain's proceedings in South Africa. The supporters of the ministry hold that Mr. Chamberlain is working wonders in straightening out tangles, and in preparing for the political and industrial rehabilitation of that great section of the British Empire. Several hundred miles more are to be built of the railroad that will eventually extend from Cape Town to the Mediterranean.

*In the British
Isles.*

It was expected that the affairs of Ireland and those of the metropolis of London would largely divide between them the time and attention of Parliament in the session which began on February 17. Our readers will have in mind Mr. Walter Wellman's important article last month on the coming settlement of the Irish land question. If Parliament should now take this matter in hand and carry it through on the basis of the programme which seems to have been practically agreed upon between representatives of the landlords and of the tenants, the Balfour administration would have achieved so great a triumph as to cover a multitude of smaller errors or failures. The Irish have not been as much disturbed as might have been expected by the result of the trial of Colonel Lynch for treason. Lynch had fought on the Boer side, and then allowed him-

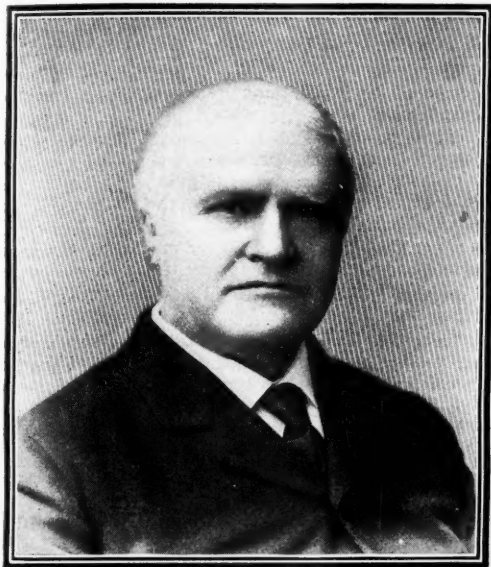
self to be elected to the British Parliament. From the legal standpoint, his guilt was beyond question. Why he should have put himself in the lion's mouth when he might easily have kept away from England, it is hard to understand. His death sentence has been commuted to life imprisonment, and ultimately he will probably be pardoned and allowed to leave the country. The Nonconformists are to a considerable extent opposing the enforcement of the new education act by what is called "passive resistance." They are leaguely to refuse to pay rates, and to obstruct the local administration of the law. It remains to be seen what the outcome of their attitude may be.

*Morocco and
Macedonia.*

Most of the European powers were glad to see the Venezuelan imbroglio at an end, if for no other reason than for their deeper interest in two or three troublesome situations nearer home. The disturbances in Morocco, about which Dr. Talcott Williams writes an illuminating article for the present number of the REVIEW, are of direct concern to England, Spain, France, and Italy, and of immense indirect concern to Germany, Austria, and Turkey. The disturbed condition of Macedonia is a subject of even greater European anxiety. Nearly every power in Europe regards this Macedonian situation as somehow bearing most seriously upon its own vital interests. Austria and Russia have united in an endeavor to induce the Sultan of Turkey to institute a scheme of reforms in the government of Macedonia radical enough to avert the great threatened uprising. Turkey has answered this proposal by massing four hundred thousand or five hundred thousand troops at points convenient for overrunning Macedonia, and for protecting it against invasion from Bulgaria and other outside quarters. In Russia, there is a wave of popular feeling on behalf of the Christians of Slavonic blood alleged to be undergoing persecution at the hands of Turks and Albanians in Macedonia. A large part of eastern Europe has come to feel that now is the time for finally sending the Turk back to Asia. In a situation so complicated, no predictions are of value. We can only await the course of events. As to the general facts, there is little to add to the extended and remarkably well-informed article published by us in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for February, 1902, and written for us anonymously by a man of exceptional knowledge.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 16, 1903.)



SENATOR ELKINS, OF WEST VIRGINIA.

(Whose name was attached to the anti-rebate bill passed by Congress in February.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Elkins (Rep., W. Va.) introduces an anti-rebate bill....The House considers the Philippine coinage bill.

January 22.—The Senate considers the Statehood bill....In the House, a combination of Democrats and twenty-eight Republicans succeed in substituting a Philippine currency bill for the coinage bill of the Insular Affairs Committee; the Naval Affairs Committee is instructed to investigate charges of attempted bribery in connection with the Holland submarine boat made by Representative Lessler (Rep., N. Y.).

January 23.—The House passes the bill providing for a delegate from Alaska.

January 24.—The Indianola (Miss.) post-office case is discussed in the Senate....The House passes the agricultural appropriation bill.

January 26.—The Senate passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill; in executive session, the Panama Canal treaty is discussed....The House passes the Military Academy appropriation bill; a resolution calling for the correspondence in the Indianola post-office case is adopted.

January 27.—The House passes the Senate bill increasing the salaries of federal judges.

January 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Quay (Rep., Pa.) introduces the Statehood bill as an amendment to the agricultural and sundry civil appropriation bills....The House considers the Indian appropriation bill.

January 29.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill and begins consideration of the post-office bill.

January 30.—The House discusses the passage of private claim bills.

January 31.—The Senate passes the House bill for an army general staff corps, with a retirement provision added as an amendment.

February 2.—The Senate discusses the army appropriation bill and the Statehood bill....The House passes a bill authorizing the reopening of sealing negotiations with England.

February 3.—The Senate passes the Elkins anti-rebate bill and the army appropriation bill; in executive session, the Panama Canal treaty is favorably reported and the Alaskan boundary treaty is discussed....The House debates the post-office appropriation bill.

February 4.—The Senate passes a bill to expedite the hearing and decision of suits brought under the Sherman anti-trust law and amends and repasses the army general staff bill....The House completes discussion of the post-office appropriation bill.

February 5.—The Senate discusses polygamy and the influence of the Mormon Church in politics in connection with the Statehood bill....The House passes the post-office appropriation bill and the Senate bill to expedite suits under the Sherman law; consideration of the Littlefield anti-trust bill is begun.

February 6.—The House devotes the day to general debate on the Littlefield anti-trust bill.

February 7.—The House passes the Littlefield anti-trust bill by a vote of 245 to 0.

February 10.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the army general staff bill....The House adopts the conference report on the Department of Commerce bill; the bill to pension ex-slaves is discussed.

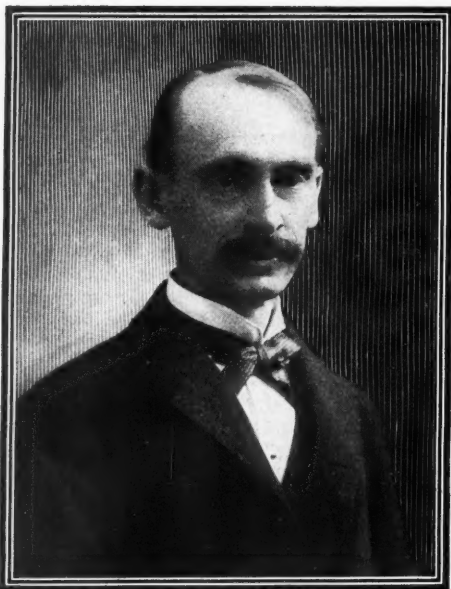
February 11.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the Department of Commerce bill; in executive session, the Alaskan boundary treaty is ratified and a new commercial treaty with Greece is considered....The House considers the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 12.—The Senate, in executive session, considers the Panama Canal treaty....The House adopts the conference report on the army general staff bill.

February 13.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill....The House passes the Elkins anti-rebate bill by a vote of 241 to 6; consideration of the sundry civil appropriation bill is completed.

February 14.—The Senate concurs in the House amendments to the Elkins anti-rebate bill and considers the House bill reducing the tariff on imports from the Philippines....The House passes the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 16.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation and Philippine currency bills; in executive session, the commercial treaty with Greece is ratified and the nomination of George B. Cortelyou to be Secretary of Commerce and Labor is confirmed....The House adopts an order for the consideration of the Fowler currency bill.



JUDGE WILLIAM R. DAY, OF OHIO.

(Appointed last month an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 21.—President Roosevelt signs the bill for the reorganization of the militia system.

January 22.—Republican members of the Kansas Legislature nominate Representative Chester I. Long for United States Senator, to succeed William A. Harris (Dem.).

January 24.—The Colorado Legislature reëlects Senator Henry M. Teller (Dem.).

January 26.—Judge William R. Day, of Ohio, accepts the appointment by President Roosevelt to the United States Supreme Court.

January 28.—Republican members of the Washington Legislature nominate Levi Ankeny to succeed George Turner (Dem.) as United States Senator.

January 29.—Democratic members of the North Carolina Legislature nominate Lee S. Overman for United States Senator.... The Washington Legislature elects Levi Ankeny (Rep.) United States Senator, to succeed George Turner (Dem.).

January 30.—The North Carolina Legislature elects Lee S. Overman (Dem.) United States Senator, to succeed J. C. Pritchard (Rep.).

February 4.—President Roosevelt nominates John T. McDonough, of New York, to be associate justice of the Supreme Court in the Philippines.

February 5.—J. Edward Addicks offers to withdraw from the contest for the United States Senatorship in Delaware on condition that the Republican members of the Legislature unite on candidates for the two seats.

February 14.—President Roosevelt signs the bill for the organization of a general staff in the army, and the bill creating a Department of Commerce and Labor.

February 16.—President Roosevelt names George B. Cortelyou, of New York, as Secretary of the new Department of Commerce and Labor (see page 297) and James R. Garfield, of Ohio, as Commissioner of Corporations in the same department.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 21.—The trial of Col. Arthur Lynch, M.P., for treason in fighting for the Boers is begun in London.

January 22.—The German Reichstag resumes debate on the budget.

January 23.—The Cuban House of Representatives appropriates \$300,000 for the construction of a capitol. Col. Arthur Lynch is found guilty of high treason in fighting for the Boers against the British Government and sentenced to death.

January 24.—The Grand Vizier of Turkey instructs the treasury to cease all payments till further orders.

January 26.—M. Jaurès presides at the sitting of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 27.—It is announced that the sentence of death passed upon Col. Arthur Lynch for high treason against Great Britain has been commuted to imprisonment for life.

January 29.—The German Reichstag, by a vote of 195 to 86, reëlects Count Ballestrew to the presidency.

January 30.—The Austrian Reichsrath ratifies the Brussels sugar convention.

January 31.—The Maharajah of Indore abdicates on account of ill-health.

February 3.—In the German Reichstag, the government proposes to revoke the anti-Jesuit law of 1872, in order to secure the passage of the tariff bill.



SENATOR-ELECT LEE S. OVERMAN,
OF NORTH CAROLINA.

February 4.—It is announced that President Sierra of Honduras has turned over the office to a council of ministers, and that Bonilla has declared himself president at Amapala.

February 5.—The Brazilian Government takes steps to occupy the disputed territory of Aere, at the headwaters of the Amazon, with both military and naval forces.

February 12.—The Cuban House approves the \$35,000,000 loan for the payment of the

troops, for advancing agriculture, and for meeting legal debts of the revolution.

February 14.—The Bulgarian Government makes prisoners of the leaders of two Macedonian committees.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 22.—The Panama Canal treaty between the United States and Colombia is signed at Washington The German warships renew the bombardment of Fort San Carlos, at the entrance of Maracaibo lagoon, Venezuela.

January 24.—A treaty between the United States and

Great Britain providing for a mixed commission to determine the Alaskan boundary is signed at Washington.

January 26.—An agreement for extension of the time for ratification of the Cuban reciprocity treaty is signed at Washington....The American, British, and French legations object to the appointment of Yu-Lieu-san to the governorship of Shansi.

January 28.—It is announced that Mexico and China have presented notes to the United States proposing a world-agreement for maintaining silver at the ratio of 32 to 1.

January 29.—Dr. David J. Hill retires from his post as Assistant Secretary of State at Washington and takes the oath of office as United States minister to Switzerland.

February 3.—The appointment of A. N. Beupré as United States minister to Colombia, to succeed Charles B. Hart, resigned, is announced....The United States Navy Department orders warships to Honduras to protect American interests threatened by a revolutionary uprising.

February 6.—Brazilian forces capture Puerto Alonzo, in Aere, the seat of a Bolivian custom-house....President Roosevelt declines the request of the allied powers to act as arbitrator on the question of preferential treatment of claims against Venezuela.

February 7.—M. Jusserand, the new French ambassador to the United States, presents his credentials to President Roosevelt.

February 9.—Bulgaria invokes the good offices of the powers to procure the cessation of Turkish military preparations at Adrianople and Monastir....Italy de-



WILLIAM LOEB, JR., SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT.

(While Mr. Roosevelt was governor of New York, Mr. Loeb was his private secretary. He followed his chief to the White House, becoming assistant secretary to the President, and served in that capacity under Mr. Cortelyou, whom he now succeeds.)



COUNT QUADT-WYKRADT ISNY.

(Secretary of the German embassy at Washington; prominent last month in the Venezuelan negotiations.)

mands satisfaction for the ill-treatment of an Italian at the Turkish port of Preveza.

February 13.—Protocols providing for the settlement of the Venezuelan controversy are signed at Washington by the representatives of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy.

February 15.—The blockade of the Venezuelan coast is officially raised by the ships of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy.

February 16.—Chancellor von Bülow makes a statement in the German Reichstag regarding the Venezuelan settlement....President Palma, of Cuba, signs an agreement with the United States as to naval coaling stations....A protocol providing for the settlement of the claims of the United States against Venezuela is drawn up at Washington.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 23.—Earthquake shocks lasting several minutes are felt in Georgia and South Carolina.

January 24.—Professor Braun announces the discovery of a new system of wireless telegraphy.

January 27.—The annual convention of the United Mine Workers of America at Indianapolis completes its business and adjourns....At the Colney Hatch Asylum, in London, England, 52 insane female patients are burned to death....It is announced at Chicago that John D. Rockefeller has given \$7,000,000 to be used in research for a tuberculosis serum.

January 31.—The total receipts from the sale of the Marquand collection of art works, furniture, rugs, tapestries, etc., at New York, are \$706,019.

February 5.—The last witnesses to be called before the Anthracite Strike Commission are heard.... President Alexander C. Humphreys, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, at Hoboken, N. J., is inaugurated.



Photo by Hargrave, N. Y.

PRESIDENT A. C. HUMPHREYS,
OF THE STEVENS INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY.

(Inaugurated on February 5.)

February 7.—The bituminous coal miners accept the offer of the operators of an average increase of 14 per cent. in wages.... By the terms of settlement of the Montreal street railway strike the men receive 10 per cent. advance in wages and permission to form a union.

February 9.—A new compound engine on the Midland Railway of England attains a speed of 82 miles an hour.

February 10.—The steamship *Madiana* strikes on a reef near Hamilton, Bermuda, and is totally destroyed; passengers and crew are saved.

February 12.—In his closing argument before the Anthracite Strike Commission, President Baer, of the Philadelphia & Reading Company, proposes a sliding scale of wage-payment for the miners based on the price of coal.

February 16.—A monument to General Lawton, U.S.A., is unveiled on the spot where he was killed, in Luzon, P. I.

OBITUARY.

January 21.—Rev. Joseph R. Wilson, for thirty years stated clerk of the Southern Presbyterian Church, 81.

January 22.—Rev. J. H. M. Knox, D.D., formerly president of Lafayette College, 80.... Orlando Dwight Case, the Hartford publisher, 77.... Judge H. W. Bruce, of Kentucky, a member of the Confederate Congress, 72.... Augustus John Cuthbert Hare, English author, 69.... Mgr. Schaepman, leader of the Dutch Catholic party, 59.

January 23.—Frederick Chippendale, the actor, 82.

January 24.—Rev. David Paul, D.D., formerly president of Muskingum College, 76.... Admiral Tyrtoff, 63.

January 25.—Ex-Gov. Charles Robert Ingersoll, of Connecticut, 81.

January 28.—Wilhelm Jordan, the German poet, 84.... Augusta Holmes, pianiste and composer, 56.... Robert Planquette, composer of "The Chimes of Normandy," 53.... Ex-United States Senator John Beard Allen, of Washington State, 58.... Rev. Charles S. Hoyt, a prominent Presbyterian clergyman of Chicago, 48.

January 29.—Cyrus Cobb, sculptor, painter, and musician, of Boston, 68.... Alvan E. Bovay, who formed the first organization of the present Republican party, 85.

January 30.—Dr. Morrill Wyman, of Cambridge, Mass., 90.

January 31.—Representative John N. W. Rumble, of

the Second Iowa District, 62.... Ex-Congressman Justin R. Whiting, of Michigan, 56.

February 1.—Sir George Gabriel Stokes, Master of Pembroke College, Cambridge, England, 84.... Absalom Graves Gaines, a former president of St. Lawrence University, at Canton, N. Y., 75.... Warren L. Wheaton, an Illinois pioneer, 91.

February 3.—Ex-Justice Leslie W. Russell, of the New York Supreme Court, 63.

February 5.—Ex-United States Senator Henry L. Dawes, 86 (see page 290).... Representative James M. Moody, of the Ninth North Carolina District, 45.

February 6.—Rear-Admiral Frank Wildes, U.S.N., 60.... Ex-Premier Petko Karaveloff, of Bulgaria, 58.... Ralph Milbanke, the British minister to Austria, 51.

February 8.—The Duke of Tetuan, formerly Spanish minister of foreign affairs, 69.

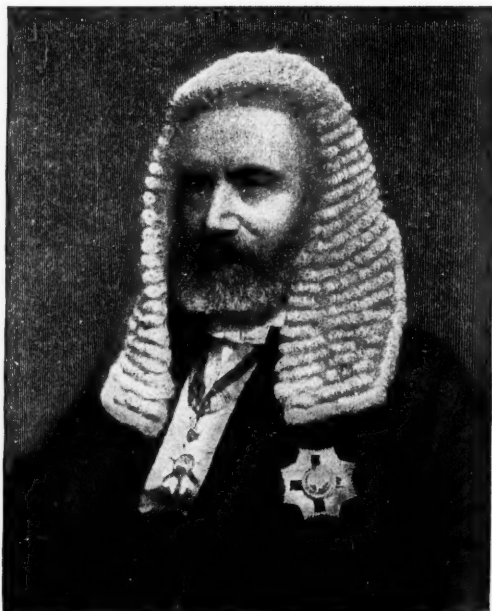
February 9.—Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, former prime minister of Victoria, 87.... Edward Byles Cowell, English writer and authority on Sanskrit, 77.... Edna Lyall (Ada Ellen Bayly), the English novelist, 40.... Ex-Gov. William Fishback, of Arkansas, 72.... Dr. Herman Mynter, one of the surgeons who operated on President McKinley, 53.

February 11.—Prof. Edward R. Shaw, formerly dean of the New York University School of Pedagogy, 48.

February 12.—Dr. Jabez Lamar Monroe Curry, the distinguished educator, 78.

February 14.—Col. J. Hampden Hoge, of Virginia.... Field Marshal Sir John Simmons, 82.

February 16.—Edward Perkins Clark, an editorial writer on the New York *Evening Post*, 55.... Rear-Admiral W. Robinson, U.S.N., retired, 63.



THE LATE SIR CHARLES GAVAN DUFFY.

(Eminent Irish leader and man of letters; formerly Prime Minister of Victoria.)



JOHN BULL: "Come out o' that, you blooming idiot!"—From the *World* (New York).

SOME CURRENT TOPICS IN CARTOONS.

IT is a somewhat curious fact that the American cartoonists last month were illustrating the almost universal sentiment expressed in the English newspapers. About nothing in many years has the influential press of all parties in England been so unanimous as in sweeping condemnation of the war alliance entered into by England and Germany to menace Venezuela incidentally, but primarily to "try it on" with the United States, in order to see how far Uncle Sam would tolerate European coercion of South American republics.

We are glad to reproduce Mr. Bush's cartoon, from the *New York World*, on this page in a bold and prominent way, for the benefit of those students of history who will in years to come refer to our bound volumes; for this picture is a faithful record of history. John Bull has actually regarded the Anglo-German alliance as a trap in which the British lion was fairly caught, and John has been most vociferous and uncomplimentary in connection with his determined efforts to disengage the stupid beast.



LET US HAVE PEACE!—From the *Herald* (New York).



OUT OF THE FRYING-PAN INTO THE FIRE.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



ON THE VENEZUELAN PATH.
Going blind again.—From the *Westminster Budget* (London).



CHASING THE RAINBOW.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



GIVE THE BLACK SHEEP HIS DUES.

WOLF: "How dare you muddy my drinking water?"
SHEEP: "Indeed, how can my drinking here below foul your water uphill?"

WOLF: "Well, you would if you could, so I'll punish you right now."—Æsop's fable up to date.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



GERMANY AND ENGLAND AS CREDITORS OF VENEZUELA.

WILLIAM (to John Bull): "There is nothing to be got out of this bankrupt fellow; hadn't we better go packing, now this upstart has appeared?"

JOHN BULL: "... Yes ... we have done as much as we dare."—From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



JOHN BULL: "Ain't 'e got a 'orrible temper!"—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



ITALY: "I'm the Kaiser's monkey; whose monkey are you?"
From the *Daily Ledger* (Tacoma).



NEVER AGAIN!
BROTHER JONATHAN: "I guess, brother John, next time you'll find it better to paddle your own canoe."
JOHN BULL (to himself): "I will."
From *Punch* (London).



"CALL OFF YOUR DOG!"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



THE INTERRUPTED FEAST.—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

The English just now are not fortunate in having cartoonists of vigor as well as cleverness to voice their feelings, Mr. Gould, of the *Westminster Gazette*, being always humorous and apt, but seldom drastic, while *Punch* is mild and inoffensive. Mr. Gould (see page 286), however, represents the British lion as "going blind again," led to the brink of a precipice by the German eagle; while on page 287 we reproduce a *Punch* cartoon which timidly indicates the prevailing British sentiment.

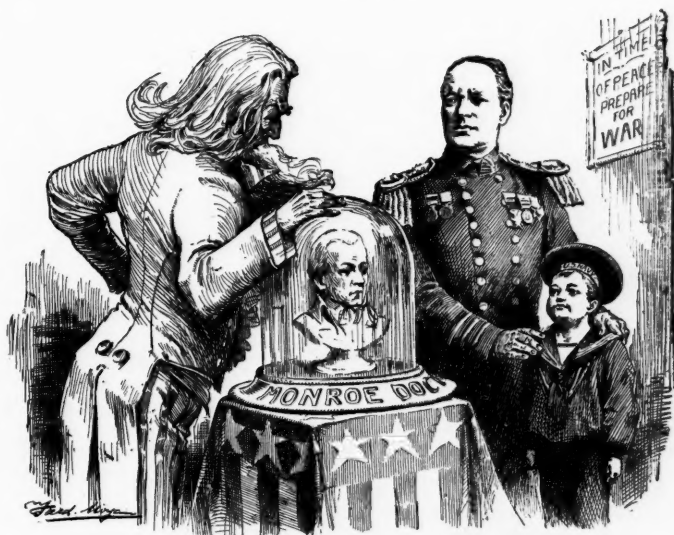
The cartoonists of Continental Europe, apart from Germany, have been unsparing in their satirical treatment of the Anglo-German adventure in Venezuela; but these cartoonists are, most of them, far inferior to their best American contemporaries in the conception and effective design of a cartoon.

Mr. Donahey, of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, has an amusing car-



toon (see page 288) in which John Bull is begging the fierce German Emperor to call off his war dog,—that is to say, the German fleet; while at the top of this page we present a cartoon from the same source which hints that Uncle Sam needs a little larger dog,—that is to say, a bigger navy. Mr. Morgan, of the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, has a picture based upon the recent suggestion of Lord Charles Beresford, the English admiral who has been visiting this country, to the effect that the Monroe Doctrine is a very valuable thing, but that we need a stronger navy to defend it.

Lord Beresford himself, by the way, is said by those who know about such things to have been quoted for appointment to the command of England's North Sea squadron, which is intended to co-operate with the Channel squadron. The German newspapers characterize the formation of this North Sea squadron as a counter-menace to Germany's increased naval activities.



BE ON THE SAFE SIDE.

BERESFORD: "Yes, it's very valuable, but I think you need a stronger guard for it."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

CAUGHT IN AN ICE-FLOE.—From the *Herald* (Boston).

The ups and downs of the omnibus Statehood bill, in its desperate struggle in the Senate at Washington last month, was the theme of a good many cartoons, three of which are reproduced on this page. They are meant

to be humorous rather than convincing, and need no interpretation. The subject itself is certainly a good deal more serious than these comical pictures might lead the uninformed to suppose.



WHOA! NOT SO FAST!!!

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



A PESKY CRITTER.

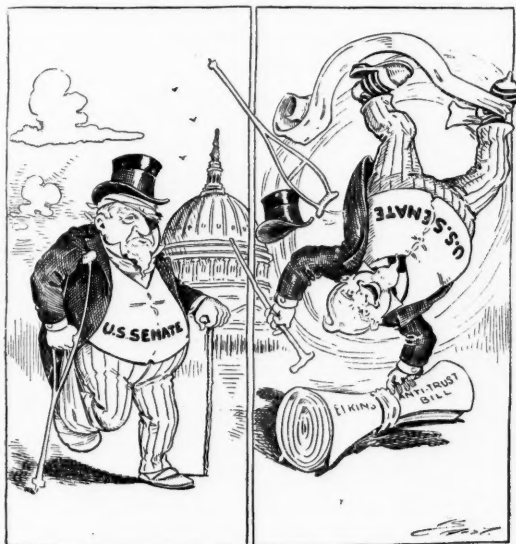
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



"TOO MANY COOKS."—From the *Herald* (New York).

The trust question and the many bills relating to it that were pending in both houses in Washington last month were productive of almost countless cartoons in the American newspapers. The Littlefield bill that was so promising in January seemed to have been wholly superseded in February, and this reminds

Cartoonist Rogers, in the *New York Herald*, of an old proverb about too many cooks spoiling the broth. The sudden passage of the Elkins bill, when everybody supposed the Senate was not going to act gave "Bart," of the *Minneapolis Journal*, a suggestion for an amusing picture, reproduced herewith.



OUR SURPRISING SENATE.

Just as we begin to think he is totally incapacitated, he turns a legislative handspring.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



ANXIOUS TIMES FOR THE TRUSTS.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



SMOKING AGAIN.—From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



'POSSUM OR CHICKEN?—From the Herald (Baltimore).



WELDING THEIR INTERESTS.

The United States Steel Corporation will give its employees a chance to become stockholders.

From the Herald (Baltimore, Md.).



"LOOK OUT, TEDDY!"
From the Times (Denver).



BEGINS TO LOOK AS IF CANADA WERE ANNEXING U. S.
From the Journal (Minneapolis).

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO AND HIS PRESENT TROUBLES.

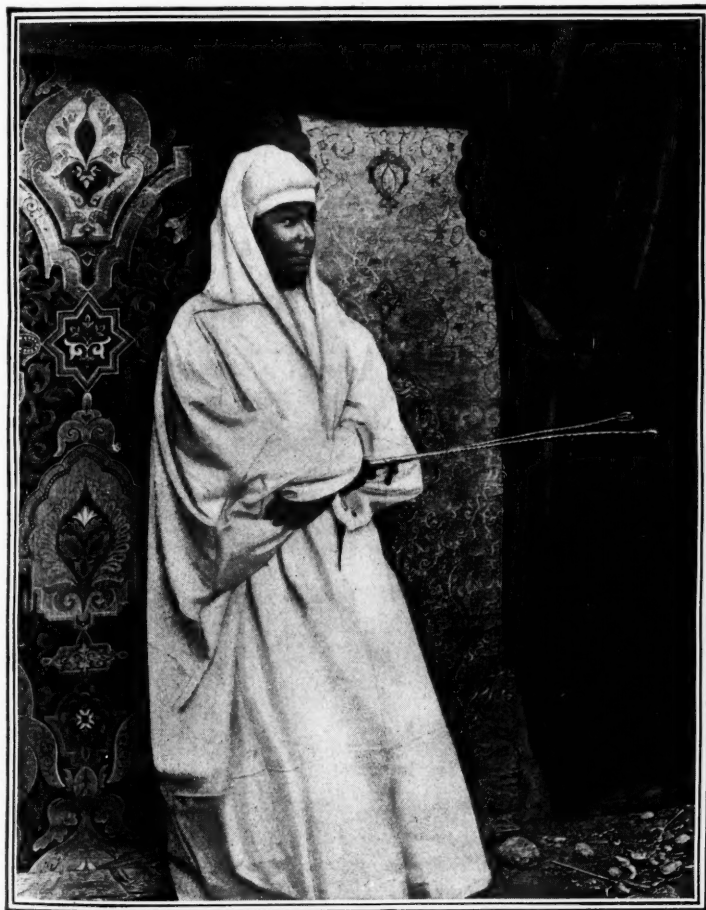
BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

MOROCCO is the last Moslem derelict not yet cut, carved, controlled, or conquered by some European power. A century ago, independent Moslem lands stretched from the Atlantic to the Bay of Bengal. They lined North Africa. The Turkish Empire held its ancient boundaries. Persia and Afghanistan were untouched. North and central India were under Moslem rule. England has absorbed all India, and Afghanistan is a protected state. Persia is under Russian control. Turkey has lost half its

territory, and the Sultan has just mobilized his army in the vain hope of protecting his last European province, Macedonia. Egypt is English. Tunis and Algeria are French. Tripoli will soon be Italian. All the lesser Moslem principalities, Oman and Zanzibar, the central Asian khanates, and the recent kingdoms which once stretched from Senegal to Somaliland, each owns some European overlord.

Morocco alone of them all still holds its old boundaries, has no debt, owns no European pro-

teCTORATE, and maintains the rude independence and rude amorphous rule of the past. The other African and Asiatic lands have absorbed European ideas, weapons, organization, and administration. Withdraw from Morocco a few score European residents in the interior, eliminate Tangier, with its Spanish colony of 6,000 or 8,000, and the 219,000 square miles and 9,500,000 population of this Moslem empire in the extreme northwestern corner of Africa would still be as both have been for a thousand years,—the same in people, in government, in institutions, in transport, trade, manufacture, and agriculture. The great university at Fez, one of the very best in the Moslem world, whose graduates do better in Algerian institutions than the graduates of local schools, teaches the geography of Ptolemy, the medicine of Galen (I have heard him gravely quoted), the logic of Aristotle, and the commentaries of Bokkhari and Malek, Moslem worthies. The judge expounds the Moslem adaptation of the Justinian code. The ruler lives, judges, and beheads as did Solomon.



MULAY ABDUL AZIZ, SULTAN OF MOROCCO.



ENTRANCE TO THE SULTAN'S PALACE AND HOUSE OF THE GOVERNOR OF FEZ.

His viziers are to-day and to-morrow are not, as in the Arabian Nights of blessed memory. Nothing has changed politically, socially, commercially. This territory, the size of France, as large as New England and the Middle States, with a population as large as Pennsylvania and Ohio, or Belgium and the Netherlands, sells to Europe \$8,500,000 and buys \$8,000,000, or considerably less than half the exports and imports of a single square which holds the largest department store in the city where I write.

On its either coast, Atlantic or Mediterranean, Morocco has no good harbor for nigh sixteen hundred miles. It has in all its area no river which will float a raft, and none which you cannot, at ebb, ford in summer a mile from its mouth. Its Algerian frontier is a desolate and impassable series of passes and limestone ranges. The Atlas at the south, with its peaks of 12,000 to 15,000 feet, looks on the desert and the month's caravan track to Timbuktu. The narrow Moorish front on Europe, along the Straits of Gibraltar and eastward to the Algerian line, has on its coast blue hills whose reverse face no European has seen, and, except at Tangier, no place or port that Europeans habitually visit. For one hundred miles of Riffian (the Riffs are independent Kabyle or Berber tribes) coast, no vessel ever lands and no European

sets foot, though on clear days the shore is in sight of Europe.

This isolation has been the salvation of the Moslem and Morocco. Even at Peking, there are European envoys. There are none at the Moorish capitals of Morocco City and Fez, save as they journey for a special audience with the Sultan from Tangier. The unchanged population of the interior is sharply divided between the semi-independent Berber or Kabyle tribes of the mountains (a white race, often blonde, of unknown origin), where a European travels only with grave risk, and the cities, with their two

plains,—one at the north, with Fez, Mequinez and a group of small cities, and the other at the south, with Morocco City and its ports,—Mazagan and Mogador, with a mixed Arab and Berber population, submissive, taxed and oppressed by the rude irregulars of the Sultan. He has been, though of varying families, since the first of Mohammed's descendants, Idris, 788 A.D., came to Morocco, always a descendant of this line, now a numerous caste, spread through the land, wearing a special garb, and addressed with a term of special respect, however poor and whatever their calling. Theoretically, any member is eligible. Practically, the line is now limited to the Sherifian family of a tribal chief in Tafilet two hundred years ago.



A VIEW OF THE FORTIFICATION WALL OF THE CITY OF FEZ.



The Sultan. Minister of War. Commandant Burckhardt.

COMMANDANT BURCKHARDT EXPLAINING TO THE SULTAN AND HIS MINISTER OF WAR THE HANDLING OF A NEW CANNON.

You see Morocco on the map, and you seem to see what is on the rest of the map, Algeria or Tunis; but these are colored by this day. In Morocco, you are really looking at a territory past-dated by centuries. Its last Sultan, Mulai Hassan, 1873-94, understood all this. He was a good Moslem. He lived a sober, sedate life. His leisure he spent hearing read the Moslem law and its commentaries. He had no foreign notions. He wore the garb of centuries. He borrowed no money. He discouraged European travel. The adventurous explorer found himself headed off by polite but persistent guards. He had no European friends. He judged in the gate as his father had done. An Englishman, Sir Henry de Aubrey MacLean, once an English subaltern, drilled his troops; but the force was small, cost little, kept the hill tribes in bounds, and collected taxes on the plains.

Morocco should have wanted "progress." The Moors should be yearning for improvements. Quite the contrary. Your true Moslem is satisfied. His faith in his religion makes the average Christian belief seem trivial. Renegade Christians who have become Moslem you daily meet. The converted Moslems you can count on your fingers. The quiet of his life, its permanence, the slow course of affairs, the shop his his ancestors had, the land immemorially his, a descent which goes back through centuries, a learning that has known no additions since the Crusades,—these are all dear to the average

Moor. To the Moor of place and breeding they are so far above our Western racket, hurry, and change that when Ben Sliman, a Moor of family, said, on his return from his mission as Envoy to the coronation of Edward VII., that he was glad to be again in a civilized, more literally polite, land, he spoke words of truth and soberness to which all Moors would respond. I have myself known a Moor of means who, being able to live in London, and having tried it, preferred Fez.

In an evil hour, there entered Mulai Hassan's harem a Circassian girl, Lalla R'kia. She came in the good old way. It is an old trade—that in women. Her family was none the less good, one that furnishes the harems of the great and has for generations. She bore a son,—Mulai Abdul Aziz, the present Sultan. It is a bad cross—Arab and Circassian—known as such to all the East. Its offspring is opinionated, extravagant, given to European imitation, with no Moslem temperament. One such ruined Egypt, and such have brought disaster to other lines, through all Moslem history.

When Mulai Hassan died on the march, in 1894, the boy was fourteen,—a Moslem majority,—and his ambitious mother, versed in the harem statecraft of her race and sex, with a shrewd lord chamberlain, Si' Bou Ahmed, made him Sultan. The tribes rose and were put down,—heads on the gate, every tenth man left handless and women sold by the hundred in the slave market,—and there was peace until Bou Ahmed sick-

ened and died in 1899. His estates were confiscated and his slaves sold, and there followed a year of changing viziers,—each as he fell going off in chains and his slave household, delicate women folk and all, sold at auction. When you have seen it, as I have, you will know what the past was. A pretty girl runs up from \$330 to \$500.

The reins of rule all grew slack, and when the queen-mother died the young Sultan, even now but twenty-four, set out to tighten them. He put aside older men,—among them Haj Mokhtar Ben Abdullah, the last of his father's "honest viziers,"—and power came to a young man, late governor, Kaid M'heddi ul Menebbi. Reforms began. They are perilous. His new vizier had been minister in London and Paris. He was in touch with the West. The new Sultan got himself bicycles and cameras. A single consignment brought him two automobiles, twenty-five grand pianos, and fifty bicycles. In September, 1901, he reformed the prisons—by edict. The spring before, at the great feast, he called his governors together and told them to oppress no more. He launched a new system of taxes, and added to the simple tithe and land tax of the past a pestilent host of occupation imposts, all scientific and grating on local prejudice. He freed trade on the coast, to the general good and the individual ruin of the muleteer. He was interviewed by the Morocco correspondent of the *London Times*, Mr. Walter B. Harris, a man of great personal charm, and made him his intimate friend. Arthur Schneider, a New York artist, taught him to paint,—an abomination to every good Moslem.

Things began to happen. The French spread 15,000 troops out in 1900, and occupied, 1901, Tuat and Figuig, oases on the line the railroad must take from Algeria to Senegal, places long held by Morocco, and by 1902, with two warships out, the Sultan accepted the new line and an interpretation of the treaty of 1845 which will cost more territory. The Fez mob got out of hand and slew a naturalized Jewish-American, Marcos Ezaguin, and burnt his body. That cost something, though not as much as fooling with the French; but the *New York* and *Dixie* were needed to settle the account. In August, 1901, a Kabyle raiding party swept off from a small port, Arzila, a Spanish young woman and boy. Whites make higher-priced slaves. Mulai Hassan stopped this, as he once explained, because Europeans made such a fuss over single women. The Spanish minister, Señor Ojeda, now at Washington, collected an indemnity, but it was all a bad precedent and a worse sign.

The whole land began to seethe. In October, a Moslem fanatic shot an English missionary, Mr. Cooper, in Fez, took refuge in the most

sacred shrine in the empire, was dragged out and shot. It was just and plucky. The *London Times* praised it extravagantly; but in Moorish bazaars and mosques they do not read the *Times*. The man, by Moslem law, was a murderer. Mulai Hassan would have executed him, and none would have said aught. Mulai Abdul Aziz has outraged every Moslem sentiment. Last November, the tribes began to rise. The Zemmour rose on the road from Fez to Rabat. The Beni-der plundered up to the gates of Tetuan. In the south, the smoldering rebellion in the Wad Sus spread across the Atlas. Lastly, the unruly tribes about Teza, along the pass from Fez to Algeria, rose together. Bou Hamara (Donkey-man),—a nickname which suggests to the Eastern ear the wandering, wise, and devout,—riding the peaceful, unpretentious ass, led them. A conjurer, a fakir,—that strange compound of religion, mendacity, mendicancy, leger-de-main, and capacity for speech and leadership which heads eastern revolution,—he drove out the Sultan's tax-gatherers in November. By December, he had beaten the Sultan's army; by January, he was close to Fez. At the elevation of that lofty plateau (Fez is 1,200 feet up, and the region beyond 2,000 to 3,000, with snow-peaks even in summer) the tribes cannot be kept together in midwinter. The Sultan's organized troops, inflicted a defeat on the "Pretender," as our dispatches call him; but in the eyes of the Moslem, as he is of the royal caste, success and proclamation in the mosques would give him full title.

Spring, fair weather, and a mountain campaign only can decide the issue. Meanwhile, Bou Hamara's well-written letters are going over Morocco. No one can predict the result now. The local prediction of correspondents is all with the regular government; but all the bands of authority are unloosed. The Morocco question is brought near Europe. France has a fair claim on the hinterland, below the fertile strip along the Straits of Gibraltar. Settled and guarded, Morocco is good for 200,000,000 bushels of wheat. The ownership of this northern strip, opposite Spain and Gibraltar, halts action. There are many signs, in the freedom with which France is acting in the interior, that a secret treaty during the Boer war may have settled all.

Meanwhile, Mulai Abdul Aziz has begun the fatal step of borrowing money. For a Moslem prince, that begins European control. His own safety lies in the jealousy of Europe and the objection to a fanatic seizing the throne and excluding Europeans from the interior, where German trade is growing and German traders multiplying. But for this, past Morocco history would doubtless repeat itself.

GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND.

FROM stenographer to cabinet officer in a little over seven years is rapid promotion in the public service. This is the success of George Bruce Cortelyou, of Hempstead, N. Y., achieved at the age of forty, and, so far as I know, it is unparalleled. Moreover, Mr. Cortelyou not only comes to the cabinet table of the President of the United States younger than almost all other cabinet officers have been when appointed, but, as secretary to the President, he has been for nearly three years, in effect, the ninth member of the cabinet. Such an extraordinary official career would attract attention and excite emulation even if it were that of a politician favored by powerful political influences, but it is more remarkable because it is well known that Mr. Cortelyou is not a politician, and that he has had no "political pull," but has made his way solely on his own merits. This is what makes his success so admirable and commends it so strongly as an example for other young men. It is well attested by the practically unanimous approval given by Senators, Representatives, and other public men acquainted with Mr. Cortelyou's work, and by the press of the country, all without regard to party politics, to his selection, first by President McKinley, and then, and quite independently, by President Roosevelt, for cabinet honors.

When it became known that Mr. Cortelyou was to be made Postmaster-General by President McKinley if a vacancy occurred in that office during his second administration, the expressions of approval were as cordial as they were general. And when, upon learning that Congress would pass the bill creating the new Department of Commerce and Labor, and so add a new member to the cabinet, President Roosevelt said that when the bill became a law he would appoint Mr. Cortelyou as the first head of the new department, there was not only substantial unanimity in the expressions of approval, but no candidates appeared for the new office, notwithstanding its attractions for many men. No similar incident has occurred in our history, and it is not strange that it is being commented upon as remarkably interesting. In Washington, where the ambition for cabinet offices and the great difficulties in the way of aspirants for such appointments are especially well known, the

significance of such success is probably better appreciated than elsewhere.

The salary of a cabinet office is only eight thousand dollars, and is practically inadequate to meet the social demands upon the incumbent, so that it is not a financial prize in these days; but the honor and the dignity of such a place are as great as ever, and they are as much sought for as at any former time. Secretary Cortelyou has doubtless had attractive invitations to go into business from prominent financiers who appreciated his unusual executive and diplomatic abilities. Doubtless he might have had similar success to that of President Cleveland's first secretary, Mr. Daniel S. Lamont, in the business world, but he has preferred to remain in public life, with the certainty that he would soon receive one of its great opportunities, with the corresponding honors and the corresponding expectations.

Secretary Cortelyou would not have achieved his success if he had not had the integrity and the industry required for any degree of success anywhere; but, without diminishing the value of his example, it must be said at once that what he has accomplished could have been done only by a man of peculiar power, and with exceptional opportunities. Success in a degree will doubtless come to any young man who prepares, by hard, steady, and intelligent effort, as Mr. Cortelyou did, for whatever opportunities may come to him. But he may not have the opportunities leading to great success, or he may not have the ability requisite for them. Mr. Cortelyou has demonstrated, by the way in which he has improved unusual opportunities, that he is a man of unusual abilities. As no young man can tell, however, until after long trial, what his powers are or what his opportunities may be, there is the greatest encouragement in Mr. Cortelyou's success for every young man to make the most of what he has. Thousands of young men come to Washington to take places in the executive departments and fail of any considerable achievement because they "mark time." Mr. Cortelyou came well equipped by general education and as an expert stenographer to do valuable service and determined not to stand still, but to continue to improve his mind and to improve every opportunity that came to

him. So when his opportunities came he was ready.

He had a good inheritance of mind and heart, from a fine ancestry, but no considerable heritage of property. Born in the city of New York, on July 26, 1862, he received a good American education at public and private schools, taking a course at the Hempstead (Long Island) Institute and the State Normal School at Westfield, Mass., and mastering stenography, so that he was able to support himself immediately after graduation, and by the time he was twenty-one was able to act as a verbatim reporter of court proceedings in New York City. After two years of this work, he had four years' experience as principal of preparatory schools in New York, and then, in 1889, entered the civil service, with his stenography as a key, so that he was soon promoted to be a private secretary, serving first, at New York, the post-office inspector, and then the surveyor of the port, after which he was transferred to the Post-office Department, where he served with the fourth assistant postmaster-general.

Instead of settling down, as the great majority of men do, content with his place and his skill as a stenographer, this young man redoubled his efforts, and availing himself of the evening law schools of the colleges in Washington by hard study at night took the degree of Bachelor of Laws from Georgetown University, and that of Master of Laws from Columbian University. Then, as always, he showed the strength of character which scorns delights and lives laborious days for the sake of a worthy object. In November, 1895, a new door was opened to him, and he was able to enter at once upon the path which has led to his present distinction. As the story is told, President Cleveland said at a cabinet meeting in that month: "I wish you gentlemen to bear in mind that I want a first-class shorthand man. Some of you must have the right kind of man in your departments, and I wish you would look around and let me have one." Postmaster-General Bissell spoke right up, saying: "I believe I have in my department the very man you want. He's a handsome young fellow, as smart as lightning, and as methodical as a machine, and, above everything, a gentleman."

"That's the kind of man I want," replied the President. "Who is he, and where is he, and when can I have him?"

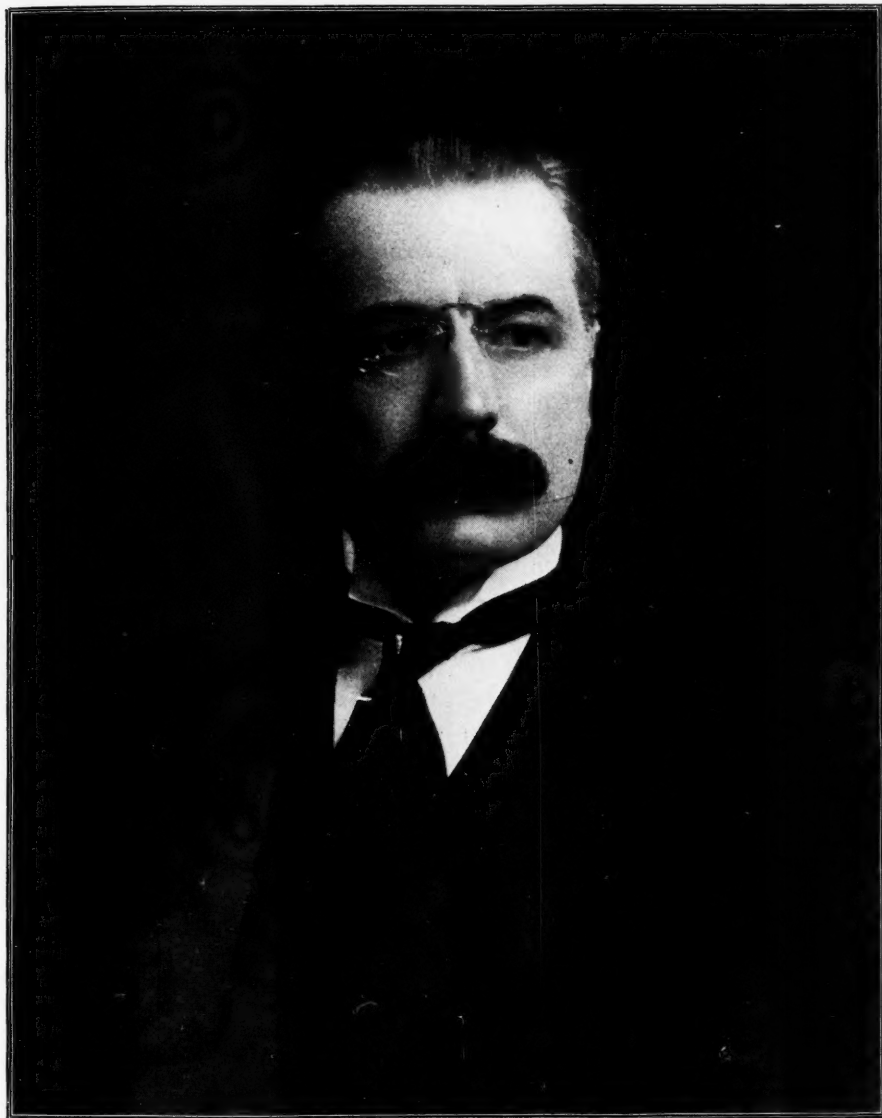
"He's a New Yorker named Cortelyou," said the Postmaster-General, "and he's now private secretary to Maxwell, the fourth assistant postmaster-general. I'll speak to Maxwell, and we will send him up to you to-morrow."

Thus, without any seeking on his own part, without any political backing, without even being asked what his politics were, a Republican under a Democratic administration, Mr. Cortelyou, at thirty-three, went to the White House, where he has moved steadily forward ever since in the same way in which he began. President Cleveland liked him from the first, as everybody does who knows him, and a year before he went out of office, and only three months after Mr. Cortelyou came into office, promoted him to be executive clerk. This place he held until July 1, 1898, when, in the midst of the Spanish War, on the recommendation of John Addison Porter, the faithful and lamented public servant who first held the office of secretary to the President, which had formerly been called private secretary, Mr. Cortelyou was promoted to be assistant secretary to the President by Mr. McKinley. Later, when Secretary Porter's health failed, Mr. Cortelyou acted as secretary to the President until April 13, 1900, when, President McKinley having reluctantly accepted Secretary Porter's resignation, Mr. Cortelyou was appointed his successor as naturally as though it were inevitable.

After President McKinley had been reëlected, it was certain that Mr. Cortelyou would be reappointed, as he was, on March 15, 1901. It was equally certain that, after the tragedy at Buffalo, Secretary Cortelyou would be reappointed by President Roosevelt, as he was, on September 16, 1901, although if a different man had held the office he would probably have been superseded, in the natural course of events, by Mr. Roosevelt's own private secretary, Mr. William Loeb, Jr., an able and accomplished man, who was appointed assistant secretary, and is now to be secretary to the President, as the successor of Mr. Cortelyou.

But it had been demonstrated that Mr. Cortelyou was the man for this place, and the only question was whether he would feel that he could afford to remain at the comparatively small salary of \$5,000 a year. Three men more different than President Cleveland, President McKinley, and President Roosevelt, although their aims and aspirations were so much alike, could hardly be found in public life. The point of view, the manner of transacting business, even the method of preparing public papers or writing letters, of each of these Presidents was entirely his own and characteristic of his temperament, yet each of them found Mr. Cortelyou perfectly suited to his needs, and each of them came to call him, not servant, but friend.

The relations between the President and his secretary must be of the most intimate character. Conceivably, a President might not be on such



HON. GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU.

intimate terms with any member of his cabinet as with his secretary. His secretary must be with him day and night. Secretary Cortelyou, for example, in his characteristic single-minded devotion to duty, has accepted practically no social invitations during the busy season in Washington, because he might be needed at any time. The secretary's business hours are practically from the time he gets up in the morning until he goes to bed at night. When he is not

with the President, he must be, most of the time, the representative of the President, and to many people and in many important matters, his *alter ego*. At the same time, he must direct the large clerical staff and the large volume of business in the executive offices, besides keeping an eye on all that goes on in and around the White House, and especially the means for safeguarding the President from unnecessary intrusion, and from any possible danger. He

must aid the President in making engagements, political, social, and general, often far in advance, and he must plan and supervise all the details of all the President's journeys. This is not given as a complete list of his varied and exacting duties, but only to show what the secretary's relation to the President is, and how thoroughly each must know the other.



MRS. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU.

Leaving President Cleveland out of account, because Mr. Cortelyou did not rise above the office of executive clerk under his administration, we know absolutely that Mr. Cortelyou has completely met the most searching tests of that relationship, under the severest conditions. Under the strain of the Spanish War summer, which broke the health of Secretary Porter, and the double duties that then fell upon Mr. Cortelyou; in the tragic and sorrowful week at Buffalo; in the process of beginning a new administration, under a new leader, so suddenly and under such trying circumstances called to that great responsibility, Mr. Cortelyou showed the same sanity, strength, modesty, and equanimity. "Unstampedable,"—Garfield's word about his noble wife,—is the word for Secretary Cortelyou. He is human, he gets weary, doubtless he makes mistakes, although I never heard of any sufficiently important to be remembered, and he

is a man of like passions with his fellows; but in ordinary days, at the White House offices, which are trying enough, through the exactions of the scores of callers and the bristling difficulties of important affairs, and in extraordinary emergencies such as actually try men's souls, no one has ever seen Secretary Cortelyou unduly excited, or unequal to the demands made upon him. The common sense which is so uncommon, the sense of humor which is indispensable, the cheerful calmness which comes of strength, and the courtesy which never fails because it is from the heart, have made Secretary Cortelyou master of every situation because he was master of himself.

None who saw what he did for President McKinley at Buffalo, and what he was doing at the same time for the Government and the country, in the hours when their interests were for the time being practically in his hands, failed to see that his qualities and powers were equal to any necessity. When McKinley fell in his arms at the Temple of Music, Cortelyou had to act for the President, and also to act as the President, and he showed equal wisdom and courage in both relations, besides that tenderness and loyalty which only his closest friends fully know. And all with such modesty of heart reflected in such simplicity of manner! No wonder that Secretary Cortelyou is so popular in the best sense of that word.

In an office where fidelity to his chief and to the great interests of his charge requires him to disappoint many people every day, where he must deal with all kinds of politicians, of all grades and of all shades of character, each important in his way, or at least in his own estimation, and with the most intelligent, cultivated, and experienced people of all sorts, including some of the best and most representative newspaper men, not only of the United States, but from abroad, with whom he may be frank but must be discreet, Mr. Cortelyou has so conducted himself that all speak well of him. In his relations with the Washington newspaper correspondents he has shown how a secretary to the President can keep official secrets without making enemies, either for the President or himself, and how he can communicate news most tactfully and efficiently, and without self-advertising. The secretary to the President can do his administration infinite harm, simply by tactless or foolish treatment of newspaper men. Secretary Cortelyou has done nothing better for the Presidents he has served than in his wise performance of his duties with respect to the press.

Nothing appeals more to newspaper men in public men,—except, perhaps, honesty,—than

modesty. Nothing in Secretary Cortelyou has appealed to them more than that habit of mind which prompted him to withhold from the newspapers the perfectly just but eulogistic remarks President Roosevelt made about him last summer when visiting Westfield, Mass., the seat of the State Normal School, where Mr. Cortelyou was graduated.

It might seem from this rough outline of Secretary Cortelyou's public career that he had no private life at all. This has been almost true at times during the past five years. But, except in the very busiest days, he has always found time for his family. He has continued to live, since he became secretary to the President, as he did before, in comfortable but simple fashion, in an unfashionable neighborhood, three blocks north-east of the Capitol. He has the happiest kind

of home life, with a wife who has been a perfect companion, and four bright and active children. We would not, of course, intrude upon that privacy which has been so sacredly guarded, but it is not improper to record the fact that Secretary Cortelyou's wife, who was Miss Hinds, of Hempstead, the daughter of the principal of the institute there, where Mr. Cortelyou met her while a student in the institute, has had much to do with her husband's success. In all his aspirations, in all his efforts, he has had, not only her sympathy and support, but her active coöperation. At the same time, she has neglected no home duty and no social obligation. There is no more popular woman in official society, for very much the same reasons that there is no more popular man than her husband in Washington official life.

HENRY LAURENS DAWES.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

JOHN ELIOT, William Penn, Helen Hunt Jackson, Henry B. Whipple, U. S. Grant, and Henry L. Dawes,—these are the outstanding figures in American history nobly and permanently identified with increasing the Red Indian's physical and spiritual well-being.

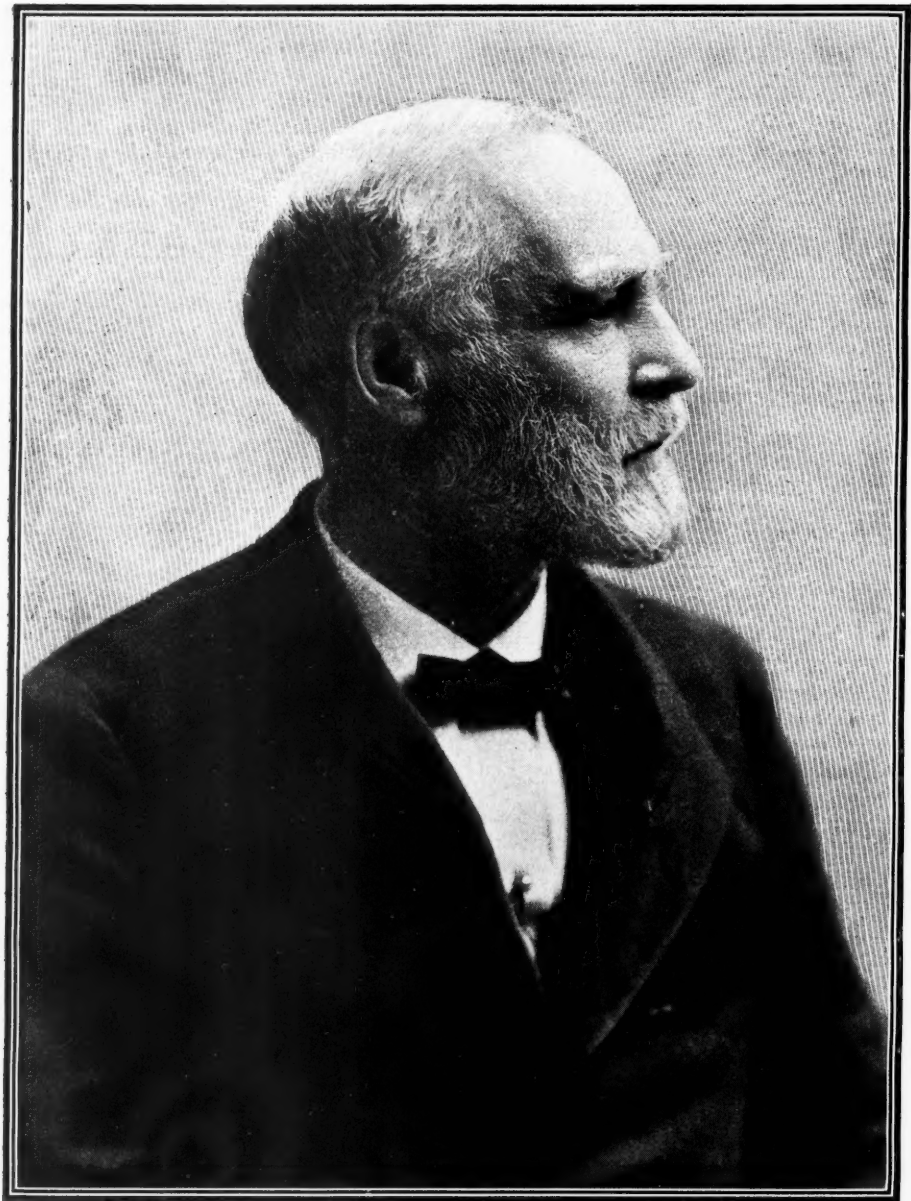
What John Eliot, in the New England of the seventeenth century, was to his time, that Bishop Whipple was to his. What William Penn, in the seventeenth century, was to the Indians of the middle Atlantic States as a treaty maker and keeper and a Christian state-builder, that Henry L. Dawes was to the Indians of his time. Mrs. Jackson, with her book "Ramona," did for the Indian what Harriet Beecher Stowe did for the negro with "Uncle Tom's Cabin." She had no predecessor and has had no successor. President Grant, though a man of war, saw the futility of the immemorial policy of strife with the Indians, and turned a leaf in our national policy toward them which none of his successors have cared or dared to turn back.

The long public career of ex-Senator Dawes, who died at his home in Pittsfield, Mass., February 5, began in 1848 with his election to the Legislature of Massachusetts, and it ceased with his last illness, for at the time of death he was still chairman of the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes in the Indian Territory. His was a career notable for its variety of service,—journalist, lawyer, legislator,—and for its inde-

pendence of thought and action, within party lines. As a young Whig he bolted Webster in favor of Scott in the national party convention in 1850, he being the only Massachusetts man to do so. He refused to be swept into the "Know-nothing" movement. While in the House of Representatives (1856-74) he opposed the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, as chairman of the Committee of Appropriations he was the unbribable "watchdog of the Treasury," as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in 1872 he brought about a reduction of the tariff. When Mr. Dawes was defeated for the Speakership in 1869 by a questionable deal between Mr. Blaine and Benjamin Butler, the defeat did not embitter him, though doubtless it much altered the course of party and national history.

After his election to the Senate, in 1875, as Charles Sumner's successor, the same personal traits which had made him influential and much respected in the House soon gained for him a high place in the counsels of the upper body.

These personal traits were "inherited and disciplined industry," which gave him capacity for a prodigious amount of toil; thorough mastery of the principles and details of parliamentary procedure and of such legislation as it became his duty to champion and carry through; modesty; lack of all envy; inflexible will in matters of conscience, but tact and shrewdness in gaining victory and swiftness to seize an opening



THE LATE HON. HENRY L. DAWES.
(From a recent photograph.)

due to an opponent's neglect of precaution ; and last—loyalty to high ideals of personal conduct and national action.

Consequently, his name is identified with much of the important fiscal legislation growing out of the Civil War and during the Recon-

struction period ; with the establishment of the Fish Commission, the Weather Bureau, and of the College for Deaf Mutes at Washington. Far more than some of his brilliant, eloquent contemporaries in the House and Senate from Massachusetts, he was a constructive statesman.

He had considerable power as a stump speaker, unusual gifts as a debater in the rough-and-tumble of debate, but he was a lawmaker rather than an orator. His discipline at Yale had given him a capacity for "team work" and a disposition to get things done which some of his Harvard associates, with their gifts of eloquence and their riper culture but "splendid isolation," must have envied.

There was a rugged simplicity and genuineness, an old-fashioned courtesy, and indifference to wealth about Mr. Dawes which made him an admirable model whether moving in the full glare of Washington light or in the quieter surroundings of Pittsfield.

Massachusetts has a way of breeding lovers of humanity, and it is not at all surprising that just as Charles Sumner had come to the front as a champion of the negro, and just as later George Frisbie Hoar has arisen to champion the Filipino's cause, so Mr. Dawes should make splendid the last days of his career by unflagging devotion to the best interests of the Red Indian, whom the Caucasian had ousted from the vast territory over which he once roamed unchallenged. It is not a pleasant record to contemplate,—the one that intervenes between the days of John Eliot and William Penn and the day in 1877 when the nation took from its own treasury the first dollar which implied that the Indian was to be educated and civilized. It is mostly a record of robbery and neglect, of crowding the Indians upon reservations in the hope that they would die out, of treaty-breaking, and of costly wars.

When once the idea took root that the Indian deserved to be treated like any other human being, that he should be educated, fitted for citizenship, elevated from the station of ward to citizen, that instead of being pauperized by grants of land, rations, and other gifts he should be made to stand on his own feet, then a new day dawned for the Indian race, which had refused to die out and to-day is nearly as numerous in this country as it was when the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth and the Cavaliers at Jamestown.

With all the legislation which records this altered attitude toward the Indian by national officials—executive and legislative—and philanthropists, Mr. Dawes' name is connected more or less closely,—of late, very closely. From the time that he became chairman of the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs down to the time of his death, he has been the most conspicuous figure in national life dealing with Indian affairs.

When Mr. Dawes retired from the Senate, in 1893, President Cleveland appointed him chairman of a commission to the five civilized tribes

of Indians in the Indian Territory. With patience, tact, yet steady pressure, the commission has done its work during the intervening decade. Slowly but surely, the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Cherokees, and Seminoles, after prolonged and delicate negotiations, have been partially, if not wholly, won to the new point of view as one conducive to their welfare as well as to that of the Government. Tribal courts have been given up, the common lands divided in severalty, citizenship in the United States has been sought, and subjection to federal laws such as govern white men has been proffered. In turn, the commission has protected the Indians from their greedy enemies, the white cattle men; it has been conscientious in dividing the common wealth so as to do no injustice; in unraveling the conflicts between tribal and federal law; and in determining and defining the status of the Indian, qualities of the highest legal order have been necessary.

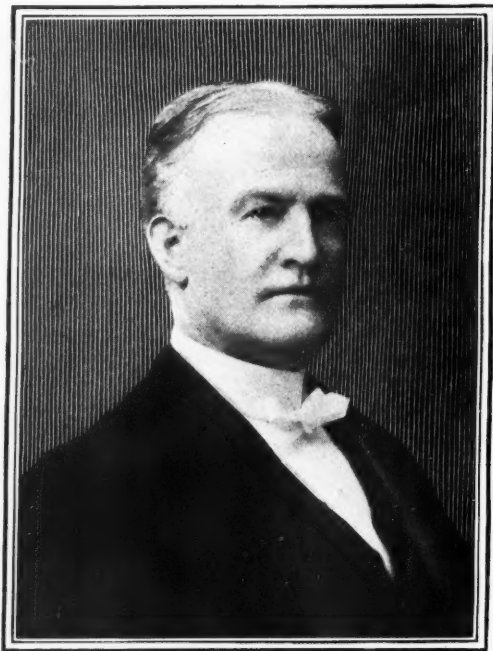
The task of the friend of the Indian of to-day, viewed in the large, as expressed by Mr. Dawes, is this: "To fit the Indian for civilization and to absorb him into it." Prior to 1877, the Government's expenditures for Indians were due to the activity of the army in putting down outbreaks. In 1877, the first appropriation,—\$20,000,—of a different sort was made, and, supplemented by gifts from private citizens, went to support the first of the government schools. Now, in addition to educating the Indian in the schools, he is to be educated through the exercise of all those capacities of his nature which self-support, ownership of land, the use of the ballot, etc., imply. And the vast appropriation for the Indian service in 1902,—\$9,747,471,—does not imply an increase of expenditure due to war or to pauperization, but the carrying out of those schemes for making the Indian a citizen and not a ward which Mr. Dawes has so much favored both as legislator and as commissioner. Hereafter, the home and not the tribe will be the unit with the Indian, and though protected under the law for a quarter of a century from alienating his freehold right, he sooner or later must stand on his own feet, and, like the negro, struggle side by side with the Caucasian for the right to live.

It is a fine record of achievement that the farmer boy has made who entered Yale College with a sound body, an excellent mind, high ideals,—and only nineteen dollars of money. His place is secure among the constructive statesmen of his time, and among those public men who have used their talents and opportunities to lift to higher levels peoples less fortunate than their own race, and generally despised.

THE "TWENTY-MILLION-DOLLAR FUND" OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

BY DR. J. M. BUCKLEY.

METHODISM dates from the year 1739, when, in England, John Wesley began to preach "experimental religion," attesting its reality by an account of the sudden, strange, but delightful warming of his heart when "he felt that Christ had died for him," and that "through faith in His name . . . his sins were blotted



REV. EDMUND M. MILLS, D.D.

(Corresponding secretary of the Twentieth Century Thank Offering Commission.)

out." The history of his preceding struggles and seven years' preaching is as absorbing as a romance, but only the date of his emancipation is needed here ; for that determined the time of the first centennial thank offering made by Methodists. All Methodism celebrated in 1839 the centennial of its birth with gifts expressive of its estimate of the blessings which God through Methodism had bestowed upon its votaries.

In 1866, the centennial of the first appearance of Methodism on this side of the Atlantic, a second thank offering was made in the United States and Canada. Above ten million dollars

was then given by the Methodist Episcopal Church alone to its various institutions and benevolent enterprises. Other branches of the Methodist family celebrated the event in similar manner.

As the close of the nineteenth century drew near, certain ministers of influence in the Methodist Episcopal Church directed attention through the denominational press to the importance of recognizing the birth of the new century. In the summer of 1898, the Wesleyan Conference, then in session at Hull, England, resolved to ask the Church for one million guineas, to be a memorial of the gratitude of the Church to God, and to be used for the advancement of His kingdom as understood by Wesleyan Methodists. One of the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and another prominent connexional officer, since elected bishop, having been sent as fraternal delegates to the Wesleyan Conference, were present when this subject was discussed, and on their return to this country advocated the proposition that the Methodist Episcopal Church should make a special effort in the same direction. Meanwhile, the presidents of Methodist colleges and universities took up the matter and appointed a committee to wait on the bishops at their semi-annual meeting. However, before the committee arrived, the bishops had considered the question and reached a unanimity of affirmative sentiment.

At first, some of them thought that it would be wiser to ask only ten million dollars ; but the majority, recognizing that, though the average wealth per member of the Wesleyan denomination in England probably exceeds that of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the latter has nearly four times as many members as the former, believed that it would be safe to appeal for the larger sum. In the course of the discussion, those who doubted became convinced, and the bishops sent forth a stirring appeal. When twenty million dollars was specified in their statement many in the Church thought it too much, and some newspapers echoed their sentiments, saying that the country had not yet recovered from the fearful panic and depression which began in 1892, and intimating that the denomination must have "lost its head," and that no general effort would be made.

More than a year and a half remained before the meeting of the General Conference, which assembled on the first Wednesday in May, 1900, in that center of energy and index of financial prosperity and adversity, Chicago. During this period, the condition of the country had improved and the spirit of the people become confident. For the first time in the history of the denomination, an equal number of laymen and ministers composed the General Conference. Such an opportunity for discussion and illumination had never before existed. In their quadrennial address to the conference the bishops stated what they had done, and the reasons therefor. Their communication was referred to the appropriate committee, which reported unanimously in favor of undertaking to raise twenty million dollars. This action was vital, for in Episcopal Methodism,—outside of the right of appointing and ordaining pastors,—the power of the bishops as such is limited to recommendations. Under the constitution, the General Conference has power to make the rules and regulations for the Church, and no other body can veto its action. This movement was not enacted into the form of law, but had the moral force of law. No church respects its bishops more than the Methodist Episcopal, and when their opinion and desire are expressed as a unit and approved by the General Conference the effective force engendered is equal to that of the coherence and loyalty of the Church.

For the purposes of such an achievement, no ecclesiastical body is more efficiently organized. The clergy are organized into conferences; these meet once a year, and every member able to do so is required to attend. Methodist Episcopacy is not diocesan. Were it so, the bishop would have no power outside of his own diocese; theoretically, Methodist bishops have all power at all times. They divide the work of superintendence among each other, so that each of the one hundred and fourteen conferences at its annual session is presided over by a bishop. Each of these conferences is subdivided into districts, over each of which a member of an Annual Conference previously appointed presides.

In order both to instruct and awaken the Church, as well as to constitute a center of communication and to secure the keeping of proper accounts, a commission was appointed, of whom Bishop Andrews, whose episcopal residence is in the city of New York, was chairman, and a connectional secretary was appointed. In harmony with Methodist usage, this secretary became the executive head of the movement, and choice was made of the Rev. Edmund M. Mills, at the time presiding elder of an important district in one

of the largest conferences. He had been secretary of his own conference for many years, is an alumnus of the oldest university in the Church and secretary of its board of trustees, and also a member of the Board of Control of the Epworth League, the young people's society of the Church, which, according to the figures commonly given out, numbers more than a million and a half members. From the commission, through him, proceeded the various official statements made to the Church. He speedily published the conditions upon which offerings were to be received, and made it clearly understood that nothing was to be counted in the results of the movement which was not undertaken under the inspiration of the Twentieth Century Thank Offering. What was begun or performed before this enterprise was launched was excluded from the table. Also, he made known that none of the ordinary "fixed charges" of the Church were to be included, such as the support of pastors, the keeping of church property in repair, the erection of new churches, the support of annual missionary, educational, Sunday School Union and Church Extension, and other collections of a similar character. During the four years from 1899 to 1902, inclusive, he traveled in every State and Territory except Texas, attending conferences and holding meetings in the interest of the offering. The presiding elders, in their quarterly visitations to the churches, cooperated with the pastors, and assisted in the holding of district conventions, many of which they organized. The presidents of colleges and seminaries were also concerned to see that under such a universal system of appeal the interests over which they presided were properly exploited. Various superintendents of philanthropic movements were similarly interested.

Much is said, and justly, of the amazing organization of commercial enterprises, and much about astonishing political activity. In many parts of the country, these were fully equaled in the canvassing for the twentieth-century thank offering. Had the whole Church been equally well cultivated, it is reasonable to believe that thirty instead of twenty millions would have been the result; but the vastness of territory, the absence of many members from home at the time the appeals were made and collections taken, and many other impediments prevented this. Only such an organization as is herein described, and a secretary preëminently fitted for the position, made possible such a result. Neither could he nor the organization have accomplished it had not the bishops and the editors of the Church press throughout the whole of the vast field enthusiastically and with much tact and persever-

ance promoted the *esprit du corps* of the denomination;—and these could not have succeeded had not leaders among the laity, both men and women, been intensely interested, and a multitude of the people accepted the appeal in the spirit in which it was made.

To colleges and universities, about \$7,000,000 was given; to theological seminaries, \$85,730; to seminaries and academies, \$1,132,100. The largest sum given to any single university was \$1,203,800, to Syracuse University. Ohio Wesleyan University received \$1,092,806; the American University at Washington, D. C., \$525,000; Cornell College, Iowa, \$405,000; Allegheny College, Pennsylvania, \$310,000; Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., \$287,750; De Pauw University, Indiana, \$267,000; Hamline University, Minnesota, \$250,000; Boston University, \$260,000; the Woman's College of Baltimore, \$244,000; Morningside College, Iowa, \$136,500; Baker University, Kansas, \$110,000. To ten other colleges and universities were given, each, sums of \$50,000 or more, but less than \$100,000; and to eight, sums of \$25,000 and upward, but not \$50,000; to others smaller sums.

Thirty-four seminaries and academies, including \$200,000 to schools in India, were recipients of gifts under this cause. New Hampshire Conference Seminary received \$200,000; Grand Prairie Seminary, Illinois, \$114,200; West Virginia Conference Seminary, \$100,000; Centenary Collegiate Institute, New Jersey, \$75,000; Wyoming Seminary, Pennsylvania, received \$62,000; Beaver College and Musical Institute, Pennsylvania, classed among the seminaries, \$58,000; Pennington Seminary, New Jersey, \$45,000. Others received smaller sums.

For various philanthropies and charities, \$2,519,761 was contributed, and for a permanent fund for the support of worn-out ministers, \$604,000. To this must be added \$379,000 given to establish churches in destitute communities outside the ordinary work of church extension.

The rule of the Methodist Episcopal Church with regard to building new churches is this: An "estimate of the amount necessary to build shall be made; and three-fourths of the money, according to such estimate, shall be secured or subscribed before any such building shall be commenced." There will always be many churches which are indebted to the amount of one-quarter the cost, which is often more than was estimated and may be increased by delayed payments of interest. Various circumstances also lead to the ignoring of the rule. Fires have destroyed edifices insufficiently insured, and it has been necessary to rebuild at once, or a better church was demanded than could be erected

by the insurance; hence, in an expanding body, dealing extensively with the South and the far West, at all times there will be many church debts. These are reported annually to every conference.

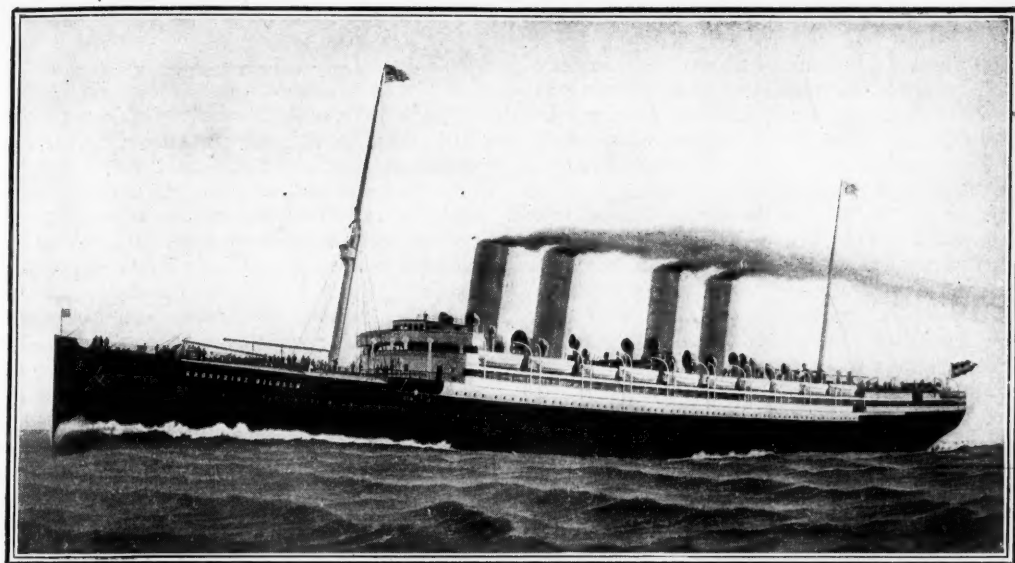
Only such debts as have been paid under the impulse of this movement have been included in the accounts. The proposition appealed strongly to many localities that would perhaps have postponed the payment of their debts for a long term of years, and \$9,003,596 of the twenty-million-dollar thank offering thus accumulated was devoted to the work of providing things honest in the sight of all men.

The exact amount received from all sources cannot be ascertained until after the assembling of the spring conferences; but up to January 15 of the present year, \$20,897,270 was duly accounted for and certified to by the secretary.

In addition to this, the regular fixed charges and benevolent collections of the Church, amounting to more than twenty million dollars per annum, showed an advance rather than a decrease. This means that in the last four years this one denomination of evangelical Christians has, without aid from the State, under the influence only of personal interest and persuasive arguments, expended above one hundred million dollars for its faith.

The primary work of Methodism was to revive and spread spiritual religion. For some decades, its energies were devoted chiefly to this end. Awakened religious interest, however, created a strong desire for education among the common people, hence the extraordinary progress made by the Church in this department of civilization. Homes for the aged, hospitals, orphan asylums, naturally came later. Temperance,—meaning by this total abstinence from intoxicating liquors,—has been strenuously insisted upon, as well as abstinence from all amusements tending to make the youth of each generation indifferent to the appeals made to them by parents, pastors, and teachers for a higher life than that which seeks chiefly sensuous enjoyment or material prosperity, or forgets in "the life which now is" "that which is to come." Whether the financial achievements of the denomination will permanently distract its attention from its primary work is a question of vital importance, not only to Methodism, but to American Christianity.

Since all these gifts have been voluntary, and the people are entitled to all the privileges of the denomination, social, intellectual, moral, and religious, whether they give much or little, it may reasonably be assumed that the original impulse which gave rise to Methodism has by no means expended its force.



THE "KRONPRINZ WILHELM," OF THE NORTH GERMAN LLOYD LINE.
(Built at Stettin in 1901; length, 663 feet 4 inches; breadth, 66 feet; depth, 43 feet.)

GERMANY ON THE SEA.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

WHEN, last year, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan was gathering into his gigantic ocean trust a group of British transatlantic steamship companies, and their veteran officials were glad and proud to become lieutenants of the great American financier, it is said that Mr. Morgan offered to Herr Ballin, director-general of the largest German line, a salary of a million dollars if he would bring the German ships into the combination, and that the stalwart Teuton promptly refused!

This, at least, was the story exultantly told at the time by the German newspapers. It may be true or untrue, but it is entirely consistent with the splendid tenacity and devoted patriotism which, in the short space of two decades, have brought the German Empire up from maritime insignificance to its present position as the second sea power of the Old World. The German steamship companies have not gone into Mr. Morgan's trust. They proved strong enough to say "No" to even his masterful proposition, and to make an independent bargain with him by which they preserve absolutely intact their Teuton nationality and separate existence and secure all the benefits of the combination without incurring its full responsibilities. Moreover, their example, in building ships of huge size and high speed, has aroused the British Govern-

ment to increase the Cunard subsidy to a million dollars a year, for the express purpose of constructing two vessels that can hold their own with the great German liners.

A power mighty enough to do this certainly deserves the respectful attention of the American people. How is it that Germany, in the face of the fierce rivalry of Britain, has managed to set her merchant flag afloat on every sea? This triumph did not immediately follow the consolidation of the German states into the empire. In 1873, Germany, according to the Bureau Veritas, had 1,098,846 tons of merchant shipping; in 1881, she had gained only to 1,243,285 tons. The German Government during this time had permitted what is known as a "free ship" policy,—that is, it had allowed German merchants to build or purchase vessels in foreign countries and place them beneath the German flag. Under this policy, German shipowners procured some steamers in Great Britain and sailing vessels in America.

But by 1880 it had become manifest to the German statesmen and their people that "free ships" only are, as all the rest of the world has found them, absolutely impotent to create a great, active, prosperous merchant marine. Germany had hitherto practised this policy because she could not do otherwise. She had no

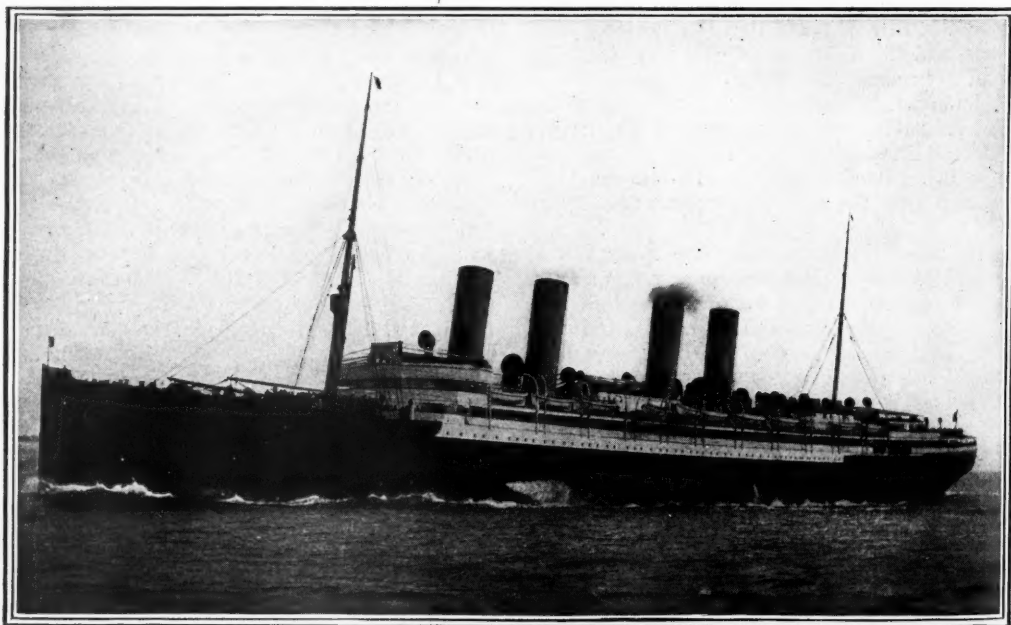
large modern shipyards; no adequate forces of skilled workmen; no means of fabricating the essential iron and steel. As an observer has said, "There were then no machine works of higher character than blacksmith shops in any of the North Sea ports of Bremen, Hamburg, Lübeck, or Stettin." Even the earlier German iron-clads were constructed in British shipyards, and the dependence of the empire upon her great mercantile rival was complete and ignominious. The North German Lloyd and Hamburg-American steamship companies, which in 1880 were mere pygmies as compared with their present magnitude, went to the yards of their British competitors for their steamers, not because they desired to, but because they were forced to,—they could not secure ocean-going iron vessels at home.

Germany's first steps toward maritime independence were exactly like those taken a few years later by the United States. She resolved to modernize her navy, and to make her new ships thoroughly German in construction. The Vulcan yard at Stettin was intrusted with the beginnings of this task, and, under liberal and persistent government encouragement, it has done its work so well that it now "builds steel cruisers and battleships not only for the Fatherland, but for Japan, China, and the republics of South America."

THE NEW DEPARTURE.

By the year 1881, the indomitable patriotism of Bismarck, having compacted the political organization of the empire and established its domestic trade and industry, began to turn toward the sea. In a significant memorial to the German Parliament, Bismarck's master-mind analyzed the maritime policies of Germany's near neighbors, Great Britain and France, which were expending millions of dollars upon direct subventions to their great lines of steamships. Bismarck pointed out that Germany was ceasing to be a merely agricultural and was becoming a manufacturing and trading nation, and that new markets for her surplus goods were indispensable to her prosperity. She could not gain those markets, he insisted, unless there were German ships to convey German commerce, and there could be no German ships for distant traffic unless the government offered the same protection and encouragement which Britain and France gave to the great steam lines that were the real backbone of their merchant marine.

To this appeal of the great man, who was both brain and soul of the empire in those years, the Reichstag responded with an important measure of maritime legislation, granting a subsidy of 4,400,000 marks (\$1,047,500) for a German steamship service to China and Australia. The



THE "DEUTSCHLAND," OF THE HAMBURG-AMERICAN LINE.
(Built at Stettin in 1900; she is 686 feet long, 67 feet broad, and 44 feet deep.)

contract for this service was secured for a fifteen-year period by the North German Lloyd Company, of Bremen, which already had a well-established steam line to the United States. The North German Lloyd had come into existence in 1857, following the Hamburg-American Company, which had begun its work ten years earlier with sailing vessels, carrying freight and passengers from Hamburg to New York. These two German lines were developed to large proportions by the German immigrant traffic to the United States, which became enormous after 1850. Prudent management always characterized these enterprises, and in 1881, when Bismarck began to make his country great upon the ocean, they formed the best part of the German merchant marine.

The first of the East India subsidized steamships sailed from Bremerhaven on June 30, 1886, amid truly national rejoicing. A wave of enthusiasm for the sea, its trade, and its power now began to roll over the empire from the Baltic to the upper Rhine. This newly aroused maritime patriotism of the German people made itself felt



HERMANN HENRICH MEIER

(Founder of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, 1857. He died in November, 1898, at the age of ninety.)

in the terms of the subsidy arrangement. Instead of purchasing its steamers in England or Scotland, the North German Lloyd was now compelled to perform its new service with ships built in Germany by German workmen, and, as far as possible, of German materials. This was made an express condition of the subsidy, and it gave a great impetus to the development of

German shipyards. It was a close approach to the navigation policy of the United States, which for more than a century has limited the privilege of American registry to American-built vessels.



HERR ALBERT BALLIN.

(Director-General of the Hamburg-American Steamship Company.)

There were long-established British and French lines that would have been glad enough to carry German mails and German freight and passengers to Hongkong and Hiogo, to Sydney and Alexandria, that would have cost the German government and people no additional subsidy. But government and people were moved by a profoundly patriotic impulse. They were determined to have their own ships to convey their own goods, and they were not merely willing but eager to make some sacrifice in order to achieve their purpose.

At first the patronage of the new imperial steamship service was insufficient to meet the expenses. Just as these fine steam lines to the far East would never have been started without the stimulus of a subsidy, so without the support of that subsidy they would soon have been abandoned. But slowly and surely there came the expansion of German traffic, which Bismarck's statesmanlike vision had foreseen. In 1888, the goods transported in the subsidized steamers amounted to 58,477 tons, of a value of 74,515,000 marks. In 1895, this commerce had risen to 166,575 tons, valued at 160,430,000 marks.* In 1887, Germany's exports to Asia

* Report of Prince Hohenlohe to the Reichstag.

and Oceanica were valued at 41,256,000 marks ; in 1896, they had advanced to 176,246,000 marks, —a fourfold increase, which far more than repaid the cost of this splendid reinforcement of German commerce and the German mercantile marine.

STILL ANOTHER STEP.

In May, 1890, the imperial government took another step in direct encouragement of German trade and shipping by arranging with the North German Lloyd Company for a monthly line of steamers to Zanzibar and South Africa for an annual subsidy of 900,000 marks (\$214,000). In October, 1898, the successful contract for the Asian and Australian service was renewed for another fifteen-year period, with increased speed, more numerous voyages, and a larger class of steamers. At the same time the imperial subsidy was raised to 5,590,000 marks (\$1,330,420), and the Hamburg-American Company was admitted to a portion of its benefits.

These imperial mail subsidies, though interesting and important, are only one of the agencies by which the German Government has aided the growth of its magnificent merchant fleet. Since 1879 all materials for shipbuilding have been imported free of duty, —a privilege which, as to ships for foreign trade, has been allowed since 1890 in the United States. The German Government railways have transported steel, iron, lumber, etc., to the shipyards at the mere cost of handling. This, of course, has had the practical effect of an indirect bounty upon German shipbuilding. In some German states such a

bounty seems to have been directly bestowed, for the United States consul at Hamburg declares, in a report to the State Department : *

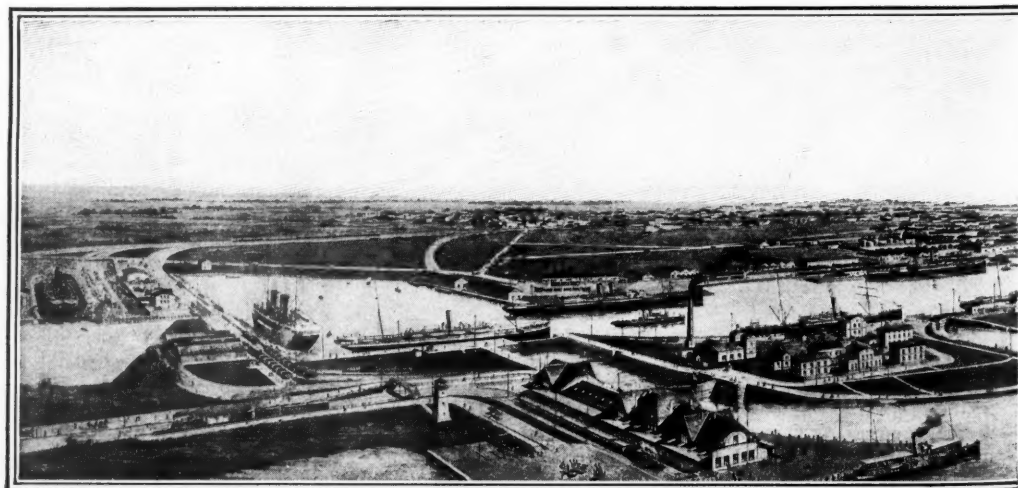
In 1891, the government, upon the suggestion of the Chamber of Commerce, concluded to pay premiums to shipowners for promoting the interests of the merchant marine. Over 10,000,000 marks (\$2,380,000) have been paid as premiums for new-built ships, and about the same amount has been paid to shipowners and steamship companies to aid their efforts in increasing the efficiency of mail carriage by steamships.

Nor is this all. As Mr. Frank H. Mason, our able consul-general at Berlin, states in a report to Washington : *

Not only has the German merchant marine been thus liberally and consistently supported by subsidies of money from the public treasury, but it has been encouraged, applauded, and honored by the entire influence of the imperial government, which in a country like this, where royal favor is so potent and eagerly sought for, is an important element of success. The Emperor is not only an enthusiastic yachtsman and sailor, but he is under all circumstances an ardent and powerful advocate of expansion and improvement of the German fleet and merchant marine. No capitalists or business men are more honored in Germany than those who have contributed to these results. When, in November last, Consul Meier, founder of the North German Lloyd Company, died, in his ninetieth year, the honors bestowed upon his memory were of princely splendor and solemnity. When Captain Schmidt brought home the lame and battered *Bulgaria* from her long, perilous battle with wintry seas, the Emperor's thanks and medals met him at the gang plank, and he and his men became heroes in the recognition of their government and countrymen.

It is not strange that with such a noble spirit

* Special Consular Reports. Vol. XVIII. 1900.



THE HARBOR OF BREMERHAVEN, SHOWING ADMIRABLE DOCK AND

of devoted patriotism behind it* the German steam fleet has increased fourfold in sixteen years.—has grown more rapidly, in fact, than any other merchant fleet in Christendom. There is a hostile element, it is true, which has fought Germany's advance upon the sea, but it is a small faction and shrinking. As Consul-General Mason says, "There are not lacking conservatives—mainly Agrarians and socialist reactionaries—who have opposed this policy, as they oppose improvements in the canals and internal water routes of this country; but they do not control the policy of Germany, and in all probability never will."

NEW PORTS AND DOCKS.

German liberality to merchant shipping is manifest also in the expenditure, since 1888, of \$125,000,000 on harbor improvements. No less than \$75,000,000 of this went into the channel and docks of Hamburg alone, and the rest, instead of being wasted on creeks and goose-ponds in the remote interior, was used where every dollar of it counted directly for the enhancement of commerce,—at Bremen and other genuine ocean ports. Germany has built dry docks for both the navy and the merchant service. Besides the great, solid masonry structures at Wilhelmshaven and elsewhere, there were twenty-seven large floating steel docks in 1900. German foresight has also provided schools for the training of young seamen, and physicians to guard their health.

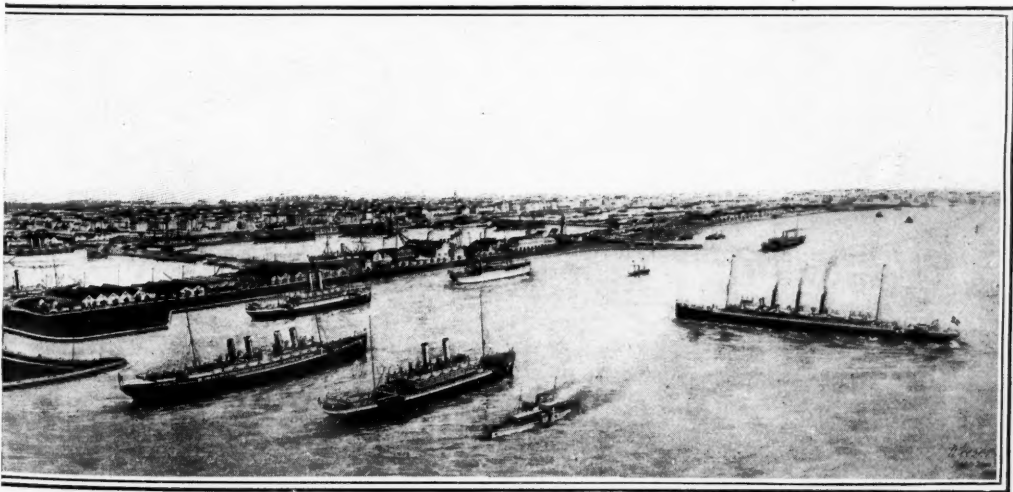
* In 1886, it was 566,617 tons; in 1902, 2,430,206. There are also 536,744 (net) tons of sailing vessels.



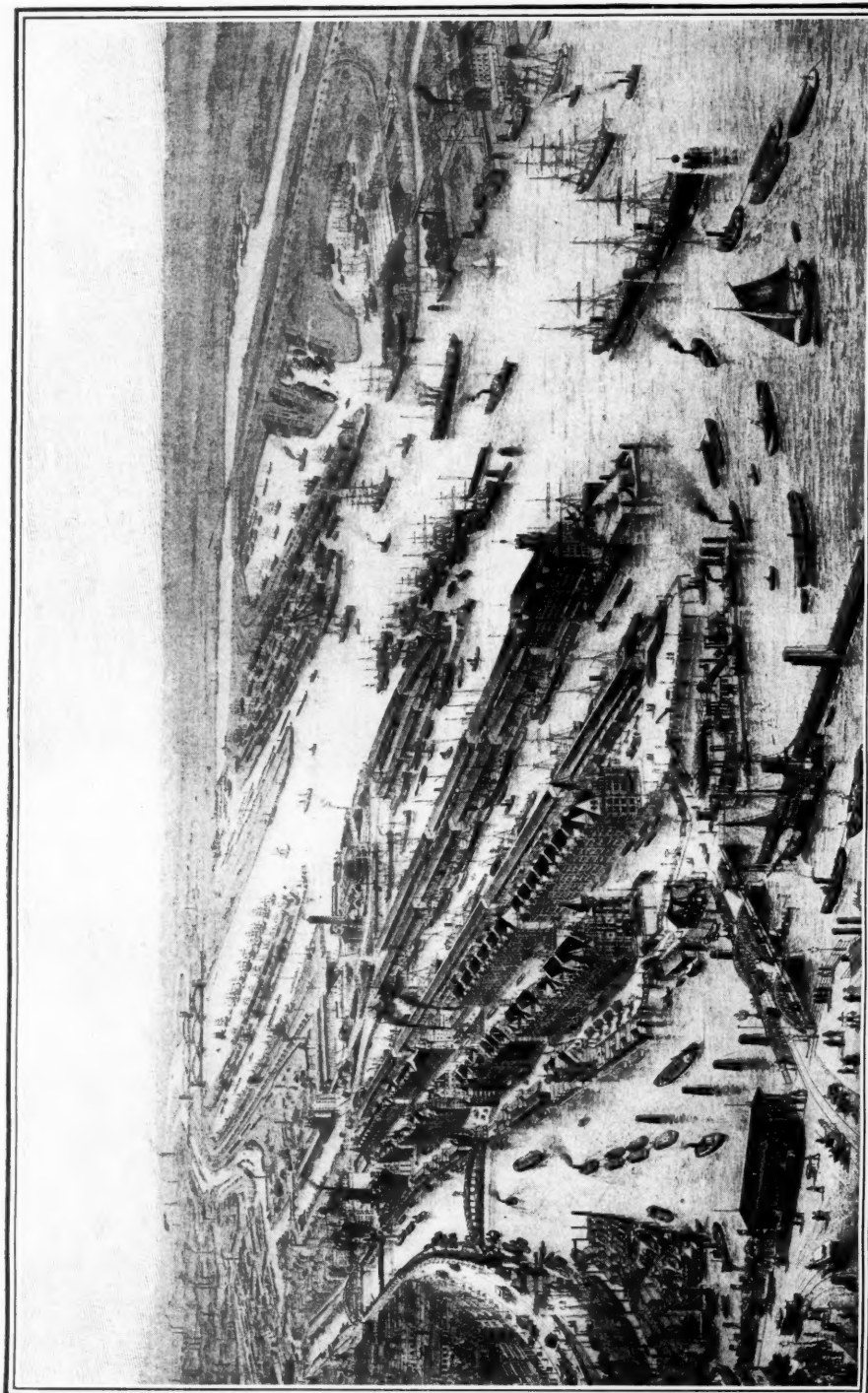
Photo by Pirie MacDonald, New York.

MR. GUSTAV H. SCHWAB, OF NEW YORK.

(American agent of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company.)



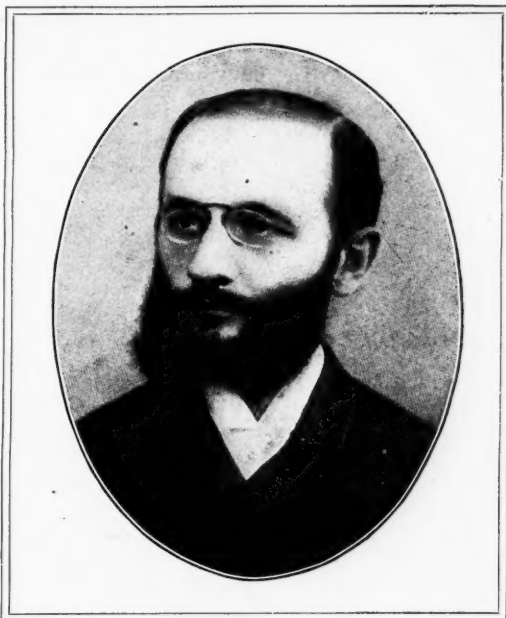
TERMINAL SYSTEM OF THE NORTH GERMAN LLOYD STEAMSHIP COMPANY.



HARBOR OF HAMBURG, SHOWING MAGNIFICENT MODERN SYSTEM OF DOCKS, WHARVES, TERMINAL WAREHOUSES, AND RAILWAY TRACAGE,—THE CHIEF COMMERCIAL FOCUS OF CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

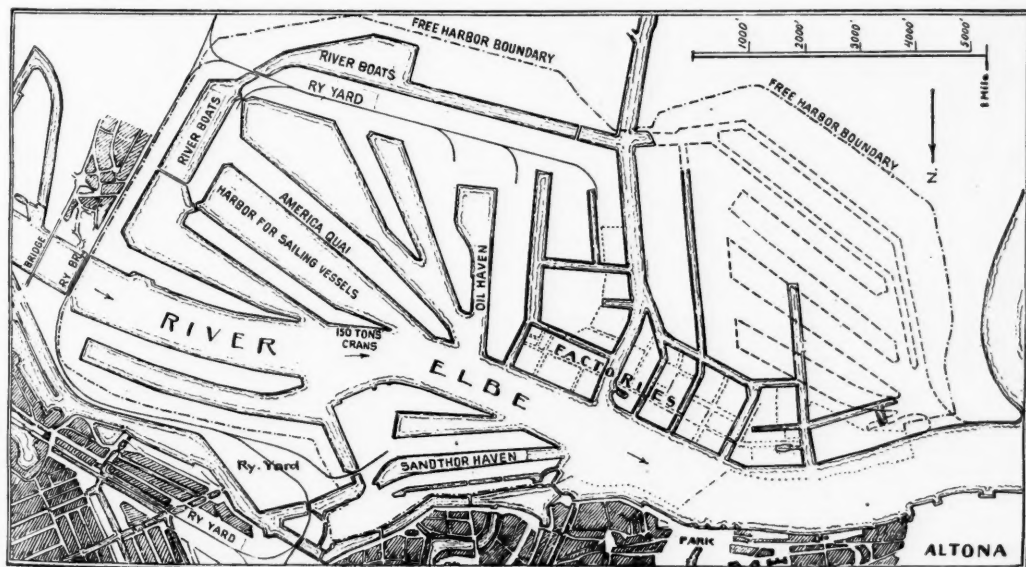
The German policy of maritime protectionism, while a consistent part of the general imperial policy, has, therefore, not been restricted to subsidies for mail service or bounties for shipbuilding. Indeed, it is doubtless true that the Hamburg-American, the older of the great German steamship companies, has grown until recently with very little aid from direct subventions. This is only a part of the truth, however. The Hamburg-American, like the other German shipping lines, has profited by the aroused maritime ambition of the German people and the favor of the imperial government. It was not until the enforced building of the subsidized North German Lloyd liners in German yards had developed native skill and industry that the Hamburg-American management saw its way clear to place in Germany a contract for its first thoroughly German ocean greyhound. After the *Auguste Victoria* came the *Fürst Bismarck*.

The other great German shipping corporation, the North German Lloyd, also gives marked preference now to home builders. In the first half of the period between 1885 and 1898 the North German Lloyd spent 31,000,000 marks for shipbuilding in Germany and 36,000,000 marks in Britain. But in the second half of this period 63,000,000 marks were expended in Germany and only 6,000,000 marks in Britain. The privilege of German registry for foreign ships for general commerce has not yet been withdrawn, but the powerful influence of the imperial government is quietly exerted against the



MR. EMIL L. BOAS, OF NEW YORK.
(American agent of the Hamburg-American Line.)

practice. The Emperor himself is well known to be a stout believer in German-built ships for the German flag, and although cargo vessels are still purchased abroad, Germany has become



PLAN OF NEWER PORTION OF HAMBURG HARBOR.

practically independent of the Clyde and the Tyne for first-class construction.

THE GERMAN GREYHOUNDS.

Of steamships of over ten thousand tons launched between 1892 and 1896, and of over twelve thousand tons launched between 1896 and 1898, five were British and ten were German. The three ocean monarchs that hold the record between England and New York sail under the imperial ensign. The *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* came out in September, 1897, lowering the best time from Southampton by two hours. The *Kaiser* was then the greatest as well as the fastest ship afloat,—648 feet long, or 28 feet longer than the *Lucania*, 66 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, with a gross tonnage of 14,000, or about a thousand more than that of the giant Cunarder. The *Kaiser* on her maiden voyage ran at an average speed of 21.29 knots an hour from land to land, covering a 3,050-mile course in 5 days, 22 hours, and 35 minutes. She also beat by two knots the best single day's run,—the 562 knots of the *Lucania*.

This superb North German Lloyd ship came from the Vulcan yard, at Stettin, which had been developed into a great plant by the construction of the China and Australian liners. Prince Hohenlohe's report to the Reichstag stated, "All

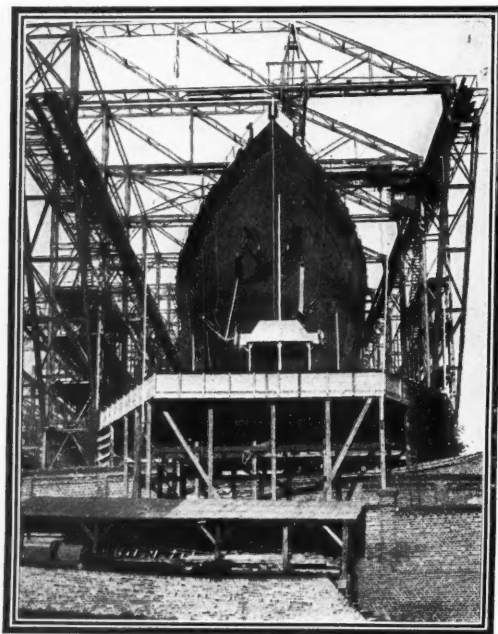
experts assert that without the influence of the government mail service (the North German Lloyd subsidies) such a steamer as the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* could not have been built."

But the *Kaiser Wilhelm* did not long remain the champion of the North Atlantic. The same Vulcan yard at Stettin launched, on January 10, 1900, a still greater and swifter steamship for the Hamburg-American New York service, the celebrated *Deutschland*. This leviathan is 686 feet long, or 38 feet longer than the *Kaiser Wilhelm*, with a tonnage of 16,200, and a horse-power of 35,000. In August, 1900, the *Deutschland* ran from New York to Plymouth, England, in 5 days, 11 hours, and 45 minutes, equivalent to 4 days, 23 hours, and 6 minutes from New York to Queenstown. In this passage, extraordinary for so new a ship, the *Deutschland* ran from land to land at an average speed of 23.32 knots an hour. The best record thus far made eastward by the *Kaiser Wilhelm* had been 22.79 knots an hour.

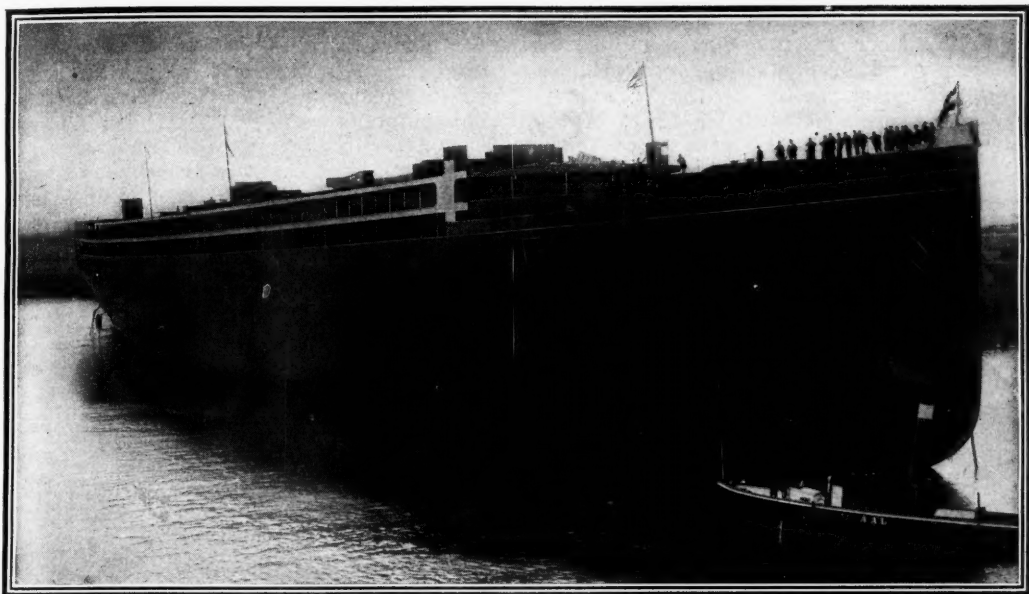
In September, 1901, a third German champion appeared—the *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, of the North German Lloyd service. It is significant that the very names of these huge vessels bespeak the intense German national pride in the country's merchant shipping. The *Kronprinz Wilhelm* is larger than the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, but smaller than the *Deutschland*. She is 663 feet long, 66 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, with a tonnage of 14,800 and a horse-power of about 30,000. This new-comer has, for the time being, wrested the supremacy from the *Deutschland*. Like the imperial mail liners, and her two giant rivals in the Atlantic trade, the *Kronprinz Wilhelm* was launched from the Vulcan yard at Stettin. Now a fourth German champion appears, also from the famous Vulcan yard,—the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, of the North German Lloyd Company, 706½ feet long, 72 feet wide, and 52½ feet deep, larger still than the *Deutschland* and *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, and intended to be even swifter. She will make her first voyage from Bremen to New York in the early spring. The great German passenger ships are not, however, all record breakers. Both the North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American possess large new ships of great cargo capacity and moderate speed, of which the *Grosser Kurfürst*, 15½ knots and 13,000 tons, and the *Graf Waldersee*, 13½ knots and 13,000 tons, are good examples,—fine, useful steamers of a type more profitable, doubtless, in the long run than the coal-hungry ocean greyhounds.

WAGES LOW, SKILL HIGH.

Although the North German Lloyd and, to a much less degree, the Hamburg-American Com-



THE NEW "KAISER WILHELM II."
(Now being completed in the shipyards at Stettin.)



Photographed for the *Scientific American*.

THE "KAISER WILHELM II.," AFTER HER RECENT LAUNCHING AT STETTIN.

(This great recruit of the North German Lloyd Company is the largest vessel ever built, and will make her maiden voyage to New York in April. She is 706½ feet long, 72 feet wide, and 52¼ feet deep.)

pany are liberally subsidized for their new East India service,—and this indirectly helps their North Atlantic traffic,—they receive no large direct subventions for their express service between Germany and New York, where they have been long established, and are so strong as to defy competition. The German mail pay for this service to the North German Lloyd in the fiscal year 1900 was \$120,982; to the Hamburg-American, \$52,948. Our own government in the same year gave for carrying eastward mails \$100,823 to the former and \$35,187 to the latter company. The German North Atlantic subvention is considerably less than the sum paid by the United States to the American and by Great Britain to the Cunard and White Star lines.

However, in one other point the German companies have an important practical advantage,—that is, in the cost of manning and maintaining their steamers. The *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, for instance, is a very much larger and somewhat swifter ship than the American liner *St. Louis*. The German has more passenger and freight room, and, therefore, a greater actual earning capacity. But the 500 officers and men of the *Kaiser's* crew receive only \$7,715 a month in wages, while the 380 officers and men of the smaller *St. Louis* receive \$11,306. The American rate of pay, which is fixed by the rate in the absolutely protected coastwise trade, and by the

requirement that at least 50 per cent. of the crew of a mail ship shall be American citizens, is as near as may be twice the German average. Thus the chief officer of the *St. Louis* earns \$120 a month; the chief officer of the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, \$66.64. Able seamen on the *St. Louis* earn \$25 a month; on the *Kaiser*, \$14.75. Firemen on the American liner earn \$40 a month, and trimmers \$30; firemen on the German liner earn from \$16.66 to \$21.42; trimmers, from \$13.09 to \$15.47.

Yet the great German steamer, even with these low wages, is well manned and skillfully handled. That is undoubtedly one secret of Germany's swift advance in mercantile sea power,—the possession of labor which is cheap, intelligent, and efficient. This advantage, however, is enjoyed by Germany's northern neighbors of Scandinavia in a still more marked degree, and they have made no such progress upon the ocean. Scandinavian sailors man the fleets of half the world, but not one first-class steamship line flies the flag of Norway or of Sweden, and a large part of the steam "tramps" and sailing craft that do wear Scandinavian colors are really British-owned. The main influences which have given Germany the second greatest merchant fleet in Europe are the patriotism of her people and the wise and persistent efforts of her government.

In shipyards and on shipboard German wages for skilled labor are not merely lower than American wages, but British wages as well. It costs \$9,891 a month to man the *White Star Oceanic*, as compared with the \$7,715 of the faster *Kaiser Wilhelm*. This is one reason, doubtless, why German liners have wrested from their British rivals the blue ribbon of the North Atlantic, and why German shipping has increased more rapidly than British shipping in other of the great oceans of the world.

SECOND ON THE HIGH SEAS.

Here is the relative strength of the great merchant navies (comprising steamers of above 100 and sailing vessels of above 50 tons) as given for 1901-1902 by the Bureau Veritas:

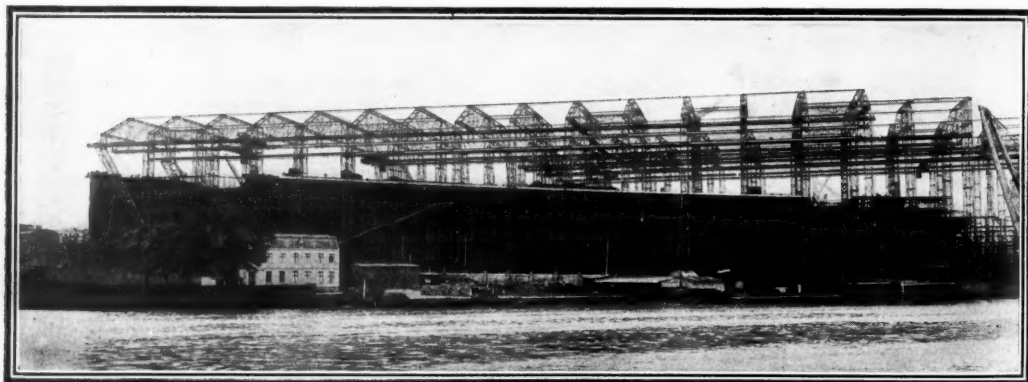
SHIPS.		
Flag.	No.	Tons.
British.....	12,755	14,800,489
German.....	2,081	2,966,950
American.....	4,473	2,767,275
French.....	1,906	1,481,636
Norwegian.....	2,700	1,663,332
Spanish.....	1,030	836,900
Italian.....	1,862	1,182,691
Russian.....	3,263	1,052,730
Japanese.....	1,868	689,683

These figures include for the United States

much of our splendid coastwise shipping.* Only 1,048 American vessels, of 906,264 tons, were engaged in deep-sea carrying in the calendar year 1900, and only 146 of those vessels, of 327,284 tons, were steamers. The North German Lloyd alone in that year had 103 steamers, of 424,475 tons,—so that this one single German corporation performed a larger business and earned more money in 1900 than the entire deep-sea steam fleet of the great republic!

Germany's natural position as a seafaring and trading country is far inferior to that of the United States. She has a short and rather dangerous coast line, few good harbors save those which man's patient industry has deepened or wrought, and few mines of iron or coal comparable with our own enormous resources. Yet because her government and people have been determined to create a merchant marine, and have been willing to sacrifice much to achieve this object, they have succeeded. The specific methods by which this noble fleet has been launched are, after all, of less moment than the great fact of what has been actually accomplished. There ought to be instruction in this, and inspiration too, for the government and the people of America.

* Report of the United States Commissioner of Navigation for 1901.



THE "KAISER WILHELM II.," IN THE YARDS OF THE VULCAN SHIPBUILDING COMPANY, AT STETTIN, GERMANY.



A FOREST DINING ROOM LOGGERS AT THEIR NOON MEAL.

THE LUMBER INDUSTRY OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

BY ALVIN HOVEY-KING.

THE lumbering industry is so intimately connected with all of the various industrial pursuits of modern life that it holds a most important position in the economic policy of the country. For many years the timber supply of the world has been drawn on at a rate which bids fair to exhaust it within a hundred years. This condition has caused serious apprehension in the minds of those men whose attention is given to the problems of the future. The Agricultural Department has recently established a Bureau of Forestry, with a view to the creation of forest reserves in various portions of the country, and to the problem of restocking the exhausted forest lands. The man who ceases to live on the interest of his capital and encroaches upon it, gradually reducing it year by year without adding to it, is considered by sound-minded people as a fool and a spendthrift. Such is the policy with which we have treated our forests. Year after year we have cut far more timber than could be replaced, and at the present ruinous rate the United States will be destitute of forests at the close of the present century.

France, Germany, Belgium, and England are all obliged to import more than half of the wood used in their confines. Austria-Hungary, Russia, and the United States and Canada are the only countries which to-day export any appreciable amount of lumber.

In the United States the heart of the lumber belt has moved westward. At the beginning of the last century almost the entire wood supply came from the then untouched forests of the Penobscot River region of Maine. As the woodsmen cut deep into the heart of the wood the industry was forced to find other fields from which to draw its supply, and the virgin forests of the South and of the States bordering on the Great Lakes were cut into. Although these regions are by no means depleted to-day, the Pacific Coast is rapidly becoming the heart of the lumber trade. And what wonder, for in the three States of California, Oregon, and Washington there is at least one-third of the entire supply of standing timber in the United States. In figures, it amounts to more than 600,000,000,000 feet of uncut wood.

The forest reserves and national parks set apart by the United States Government within the limits of these three States aggregate an area of 32,428 square miles, or more than 22 per cent. of the total wooded area of the States. In the State of Oregon alone, where a careful examination has been made, the national census officials have estimated the standing timber on these reservations at 55,000,000,000 feet, or one-fourth of the State's total supply.

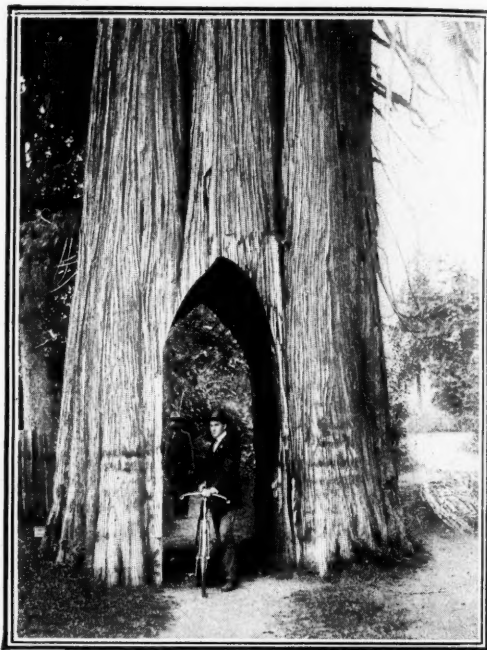
Thus it is in this territory that there is stocked the future lumber supply of the country. The more characteristic species of trees in this section are the redwood, which abounds in upper California, the yellow and sugar pines of the Sierra slope, and the fir trees of Oregon and Washington. In addition to these species, there are smaller tracts of larch, oak, hemlock, and other trees.

The Pacific Coast has had many factors to aid it in the establishment of an immense lumber business. One of the most important of these is the climate. In the lumbering regions of California, Oregon, and Washington there is hardly more than a week's snow falling each winter. This leaves the loggers free to work the whole year round, and what snow does fall acts as a hamper on the business. The sheltered situation of the lumber tracts of the Northwest, cut up by the Sierra slope, keeps the temperature high throughout the winter.

The development of the lumber industry in the Northwest reminds one of the transition of the dry goods trade in the cities from the innumerable small stores to that great and thoroughly American idea, the modern department store. The small logger was for many years the most important factor in this section of the country. He was the pioneer. It took but little capital to secure small tracts of timbered land adjacent to the river or the coast, and to clear them of their standing timber. In many cases the lands were acquired under the Homestead laws of the United States, which allot 160 acres to each settler. Working at a small outlay, the small logger was enabled to put his timber into market at a cost which enabled him to realize a large profit on his investment. In the financial panic of 1893, a great number of these small operators were wiped out, leaving the field clear for the larger concerns, which now control it.

TIMBER-CUTTING ON A LARGE SCALE.

To-day operations are carried on upon an entirely different basis from that followed by the pioneers. The business is conducted on a Titanic scale, and the companies which are engaged in the lumber business are capitalized into the mil-



SNOHOMISH BICYCLE PATH THROUGH CEDAR AT EVERETT, WASHINGTON.

lions, and think nothing of building miles of private railways in order to transport their cut timber to the nearest route to market.

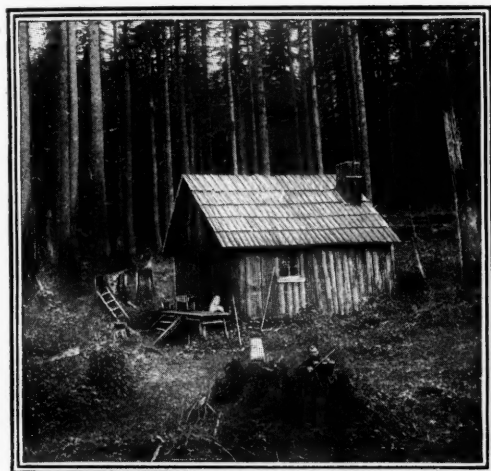
The passing of the small operators who survived the panic of 1893 was due not to the competition on the part of the larger firms, but to the fact that all the small tracts of forest contiguous to river and coast have been worked out, and that the timber now lies inland, in large tracts, requiring heavy investment in order to accomplish anything. The majority of the small loggers have gone in with the big companies, either as managers or as stockholders.

As an example of the stupendous scale of organization on which the business is now conducted I may cite the instance of one firm, which controls 1,000,000 acres of heavily timbered ground. Yet another concern has an operative capacity of 500,000 feet of logs each working day in the year. The equipment necessary to carry on this business consists of 80 miles of railroad, 10 locomotives, 20 logging or "donkey" engines, a large number of railway trucks, and employs about 400 men and 80 horses.

The immensity of the trade is further shown by the following comparisons: If a building were erected which would cover the Pacific Forest Reserve, which covers an area of over 212 square miles, its roof could be shingled with the

annual output of the shingle mills of the State of Washington alone. Again, if the year's lumber product of that State were loaded on railway cars and placed end to end, it would form a train of over 1,500 miles in length, or more than the distance from Seattle to Denver.

The markets for which this output is manufactured are scattered all over the world. Australia, Hawaii, China, Japan, England, Germany, and, of course, our own country share in the trade. The shipbuilding plants of America turn to the



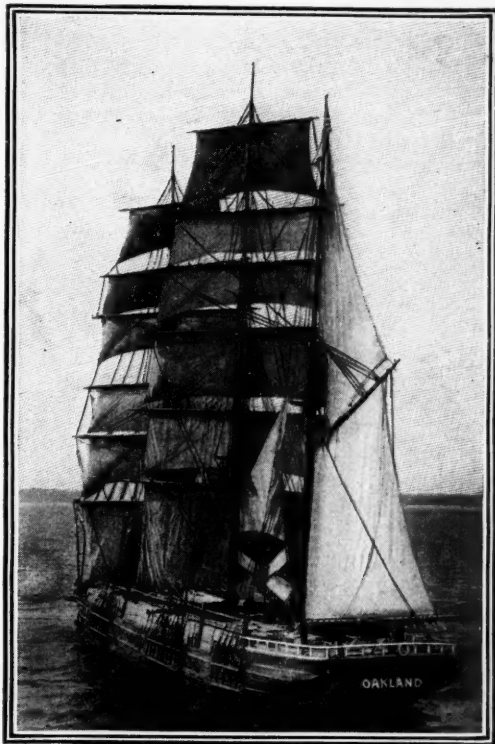
SHAKE CABIN ON A CLEARING.

Northwest for the sturdy fir masts and spars. The Navy Department's specifications for war vessels recommend the use of fir for all wood purposes, except the decorative finish of cabin interiors, owing to the fir's great strength and durability. The wooden standards from which float the flags at Windsor Castle, and at the palace of the Emperor of Japan, are both made from Douglass fir, shipped from the Pacific Coast. Emperor Wilhelm's speedy yacht, the *Meteor*, at whose christening Miss Roosevelt presided with her tactful grace, with Prince Henry of Prussia as a witness, is fitted with Puget Sound fir masts and spars. There were shipped to England spars and masts of this same wood, to be used in the construction of King Edward's speedy racing yacht, built on the banks of the Thames. One of the illustrations shows a bark laden with lumber, bound for Honolulu.

MODERN METHODS OF HANDLING LOGS.

In the early days logging was done almost exclusively by long teams of oxen and horses. Skid roads were built, over which the logs were dragged by teams of four to a dozen oxen. The

logs were fastened together by means of large steel hooks,—“dogs,” the lumbermen called them,—driven into either side of the log near its end. From these dogs heavy steel chains were stretched from log to log until a continuous chain of logs was formed. The art of driving the oxen was one held in high repute, and a first-class teamster could command any reasonable wage. These methods were in vogue in the days when the timber lay near to the water. Now that the forests have been cleared away within a radius of from 20 to 30 miles of the water, it has been found necessary to use narrow or standard gauge railways to drag the logs to the water, when they are made up into big booms, and floated downstream to the mills. It is necessary even now, in some places, to use animals to drag the logs from the forests to the railways. Oxen have been entirely supplanted by the more intelligent Clyde and Percheron horses. Even these will eventually be done away with by the use of heavy stationary or “donkey” engines, now in use by many of the camps. These handle the logs by means of steel wire cables wound on the drums of the engines, which have an operative radius of from 500 to 3,000 feet. All land within such

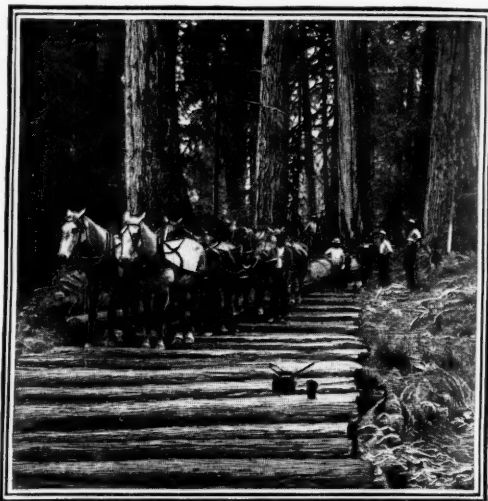


AN OUTWARD BOUND VESSEL WITH LUMBER CARGO.

a radius is called a yard. When a yard has been worked out, the heavy chains which anchor the engine in place are loosened, and the end of the cable is fastened to a distant stump or tree and the steam turned on. The winding of the cable on the drum hauls the heavy engine over the ground like some clumsy but powerful monster. This process is repeated again and again.

A logging crew consists of a foreman, an engineer, two fellers, two sawyers, a skid-maker, ten laborers, two under-cutters, two barkers, two swampers, two buckers, three hook-tenders, two cable and signal men, two teamsters, one skid-greaser, one cook and cook's helper, or a total of thirty-five men. A crew of this size will cut 45,000 board-measure feet of logs a day during the entire year.

The discipline necessary for the carrying on of this work is as rigid as that of a military system. To each man is allotted his duties, and he must be at work constantly and be ever alert. The feller is the first to reach the tree. He chooses the place where the tree is to fall, and cuts notches on each side of the tree to hold the ends of the springboards on which the fellers stand at their work. These may be seen in one of the illustrations. A kerf is then chopped in the side at a true right angle with the line of direction which the tree is intended to take when it falls. The width of this kerf is governed by the diameter of the tree, in order to act as a true fulcrum in guiding the fall. With a long, narrow blade the fellers set to work on the side of the tree opposite to the kerf. When it has been sawed not quite half through, the chopping is

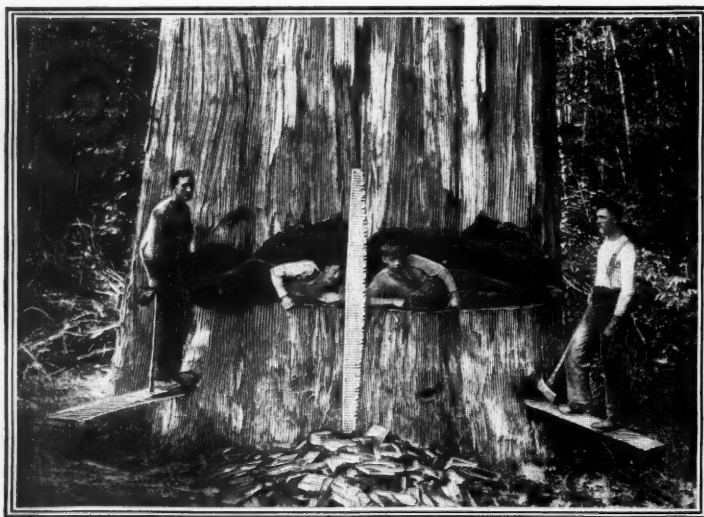


HAULING TIMBER WITH HORSES ON A SKID ROAD.

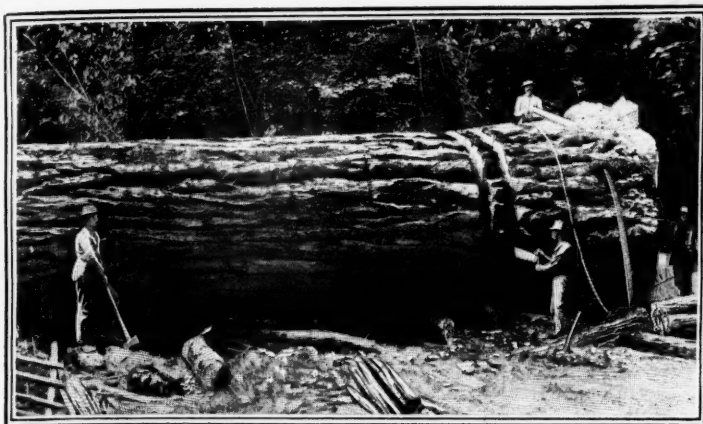
commenced on the other side. When the tree has been sawed nearly to the middle on both sides steel wedges are driven in the kerf, and by driving these in with their axes the fellers control the tree with such accuracy that they are able to drop it within a foot or two of the exact location they wish. This is frequently necessary in order to prevent the shattering of a trunk, or to land it in an accessible place to be attached to the donkey engine.

The sawyers, each working single, and armed with a long stiff-bladed saw, filed to a razor-like sharpness, come after the fellers. The boss in-

structs them as to the lengths into which the trees are to be cut, and the sawyers set to work. So true do the saws cut the wood that they go through the thick trunk as evenly as though held in place by guides, though this is never the case. When the sawyers have completed their work, the swampers follow them and clear away the underbrush and obstructions from around the fallen tree, so that the logs may be dragged out. The barkers come next; so thick and strong is the bark of the Douglass fir that it is next to impossible to drag the log when lying on such a rough surface. The bark varies from 6 to 8 inches in thick-



A BIG CEDAR TREE, SHOWING METHOD OF FELLING.



SAWING THE BUTT OF A BIG TREE.

ness. From that side of the log which the law of gravitation will make the underside the barkers clear away the bark, so that it may run smoothly on the ground. The last man to handle the log is the hook-tender, who fastens his tackle to it. Then it starts on its journey to the nearest landing on the railway.

are made into immense booms and floated down the rivers to the coast. There they are hauled from the water and fed into the vast lumber-consuming machinery of the mills, to be turned out in the form of a finished product.

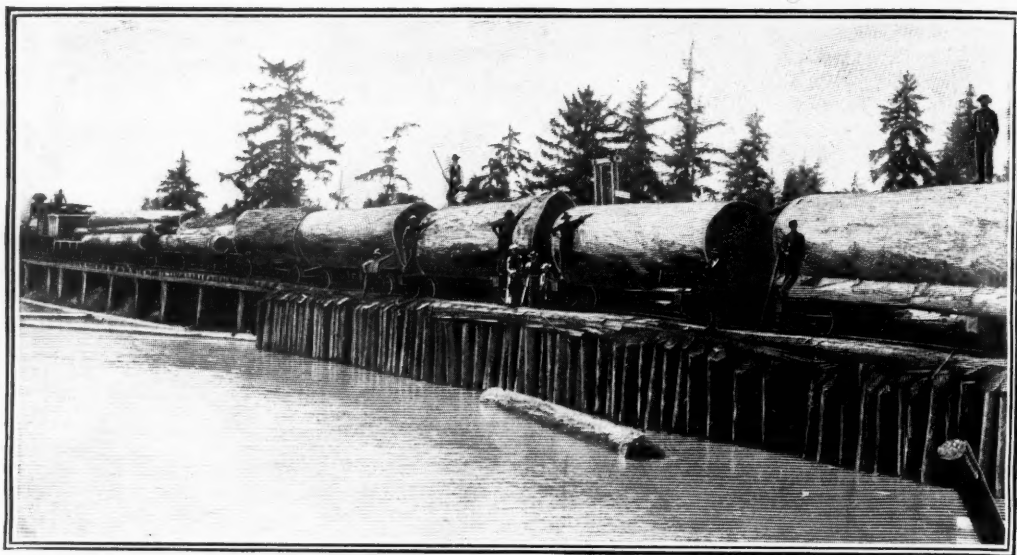
Almost all the great cities on the North Pacific Coast owe their prosperity, if not their foundation, to the lumber industry. In the redwood

LUMBER-MAKING AS AN INDUSTRY OF THE NORTHWEST.

The manufacturing of lumber and shingles employs far more men than the actual logging. Sawmills were first put into operation in the Northwest more than fifty years ago, and to-day the industry is on a basis where the most improved methods of manufacture are in use. Without exception, the saw and shingle mills are built either on the side of the water or on foundations of piles built in deep water. This is a necessity, as the logs, after leaving the railways,



HAULING TIMBER WITH A "DONKEY" ENGINE.



A LOG TRAIN.

trade San Francisco and Eureka, Cal., are the principal ports. At the former city the greatest amount of business is done, and the great mill companies have agencies there, through which they handle their cargo and shipping trade. In Oregon, Portland is the lumber metropolis, and produces an annual output of about 300,000,000 feet of lumber. In Washington, Tacoma, Seattle, Fort Balkely, Ballard, Whatcom, and Everett are the leading cities. The latter city is a wonderful example of the growth of a municipality whose entire prosperity depends on the lumber trade. In a little more than ten years the city has grown from nothing to a large population and to the distinction of being the largest producer of lumber and shingles on Puget Sound. This is due to the fact that it is in the very heart of the richest timber belt of the country, and that it is the most natural outlet for the production of the lumber district of Washington. It is on the Snohomish River, a stream whose surface is continually covered with immense booms of logs floated down from points high on the stream.

That the lumber industry of the Pacific States, great as it is, has only made a beginning, is made clear by the census reports, which show that the cut of those States in 1900 was only 9.5 per cent. of the country's total lumber product—less than the output of the single State of Wisconsin.

SOCIAL LIFE OF THE LOGGING CAMPS.

The life of the men engaged in the actual felling of the trees is a hard and exacting one, yet



A LUMBER MILL, WITH CEDAR CUT INTO BOLTS AS BIG AS A MAN.

it has its compensations, and there is a certain rough, crude poetry and romance about the lives of these men. The constant companionship with the great trees, and the keen appreciation of the strength and power of nature at its best, combine to create a character as broad and as hearty as the great fir trees, whose bases measure 50 and 60 feet in circumference.

Over three-fourths of the loggers are of Scandinavian birth or extraction, and the balance is made up from French-Canadians and native Americans. In the higher branches of the work, which require more than ordinary executive ability and intelligence, to say nothing of the skill of gauging the nature of men, almost all the men are native-born Americans. Some of these men,—the "bosses" of the lumber camps,—have been born in the Northwest, and have followed lumbering from the time when, as boys of fifteen and sixteen, they were employed in greasing skids or in the other light work of the camp. Others have been drawn from the fast-failing lumber regions of Maine, and from the camps of the northern Mississippi Valley.

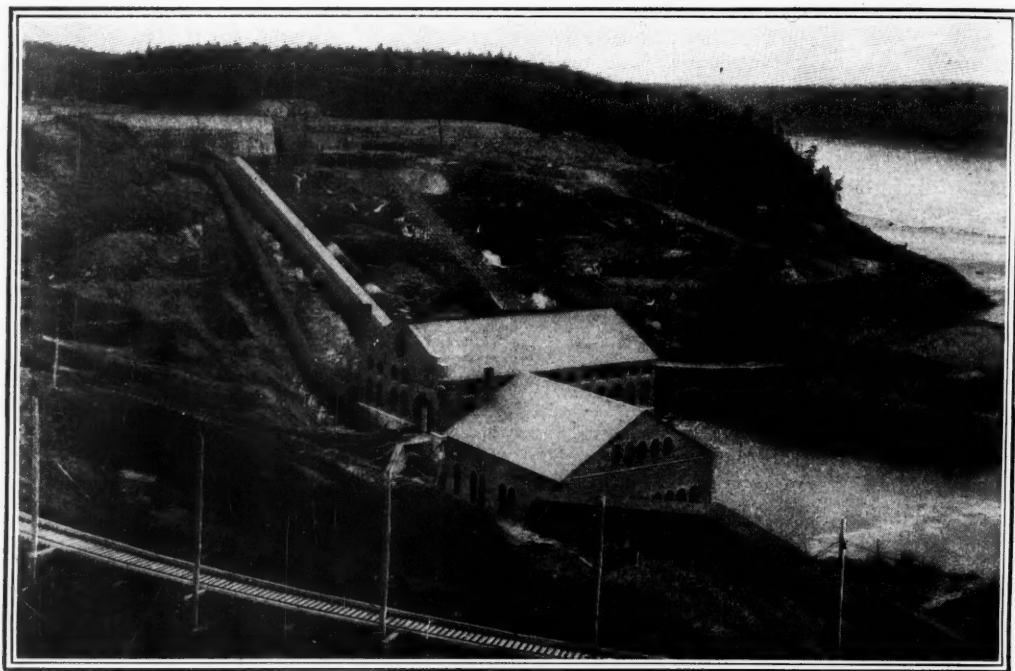
The working life of a lumberman lasts from twenty to thirty-five years. In the latter case

the man has started as a boy of fifteen at skid-greasing. The common logger, as a rule, starts in to work at about twenty. Unless disabled by accident, for disease is so rare as to be almost wholly unknown, the men work at their trade until they are fifty or fifty-five years old. Even then they are still hale, active men, and fit for steady employment in less strenuous occupations.

Labor unions have existed for some years, yet strikes are almost unknown. Employers generally have their camps in charge of "bosses" who have themselves worked as laborers at some time in their lives. These bosses know the nature of the men under them, and regulate conditions with a fairness both to employer and employed. The scale of wage varies from two to four dollars a day, the average rate being two dollars and a quarter. This, of course, is in addition to food and lodging. Thus the logger of the Northwestern camps earns a much higher rate of wage, everything considered, than does any laboring man in any other portion of the country. He is, indeed, far better off financially and physically than nine-tenths of the clerks who spend their lives in the confining atmospheres of stores and offices.



A DANCE ON A BIG CEDAR STUMP.



A GENERAL VIEW OF THE SHAWINIGAN FALLS ELECTRIC PLANT.
(Showing concrete bulkhead or dam, and power-house.)

LONG-DISTANCE POWER-TRANSMISSION IN CANADA.

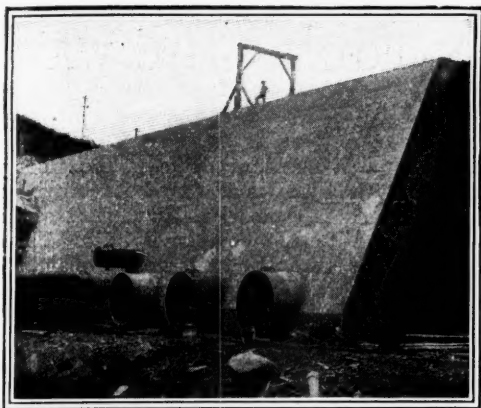
BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

A FEW years ago, when the British colonial premiers were visiting Canada to take the first steps for establishing the Pacific cable, a dinner was given them at Toronto by the Chamber of Commerce. One of the speakers from the Antipodes said that the great thing which had impressed him in the Dominion was its marvelous superabundance of water; and he expressed the whimsical but pathetic wish that a pipe line rather than a cable could be laid to his own parched continent of Australia from the shores of British Columbia. It is not alone the water in the rivers and lakes that catches the visitor's attention, if he happen to be an engineer, but the amount of motive power that their energy could be made to develop.

The trouble with the Canadian water powers has been their location in regions destitute of population and industries. Even at Niagara, nearly the whole development up to the present

time has taken place on the American bank; and the work now going on around Queen Victoria Park is also directed by American skill and capital. But, thanks to modern electrical methods of power-transmission, a new departure is to be made; and steps are now being taken actively to carry current from the Dufferin Islands straight across country to Toronto, seventy miles away.

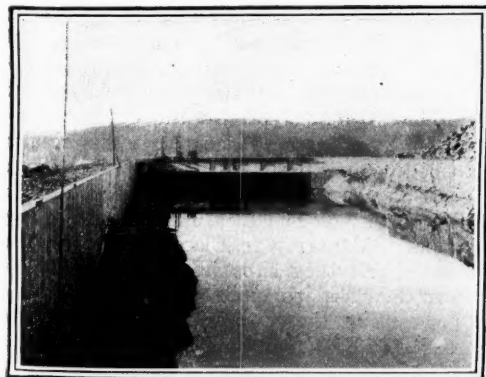
Meantime, the longest power circuit on the Atlantic seaboard has been put in operation in Canada, from Shawinigan Falls to Montreal, 84 miles, and very shortly Quebec will be reached, about 90 miles. These distances may seem great, but readers of the REVIEW will remember that about a year ago it described the work in California, with circuits of 216 miles from the Sierras to the Golden Gate. Montreal has for some years been busy developing its own adjacent Chambly and Lachine water powers, but welcomes heartily this supply from the St. Maurice



THE BULKHEAD.

and Shawinigan rivers to the north, with a drainage area of 18,000 square miles and a capacity of delivering at least 200,000 horse-power. With the St. Lawrence thus supplemented from sources far away, Montreal should enjoy a great industrial development; while at Shawinigan Falls itself, a large local utilization of the power has already begun. This lonely region in the Laurentian Hills has gained a population of 5,000 in three years.

The current to Montreal is sent over the long circuits at a pressure of 50,000 volts, on nearly five thousand poles from the adjacent forests, and the wire cables are of aluminum instead of

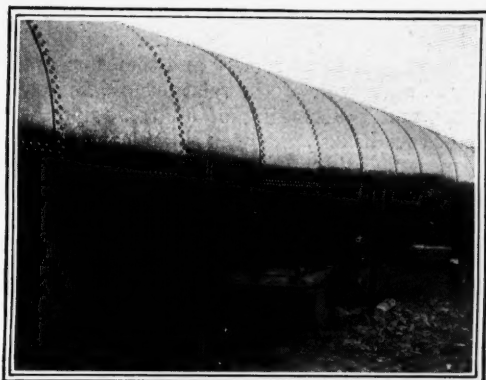


A SECTION OF THE CANAL.

copper. The circuits now up will carry 8,000 horse-power, and at least 30,000 horse-power is thus to be flashed from Shawinigan to the receiving station at Maisonneuve. The aluminum it-

self is being extracted by this power up in those remote woods, and other products are already being made or are in contemplation. The big electric generators, transformers, etc., are of American origin; and the chief engineers, Messrs. Wallace C. Johnson and Ralph D. Mer-shon, are men who have won their reputation in the United States. As noted above, Quebec is at about the same striking distance from Shawinigan as Montreal, and hopes also soon to see the resources of its own beautiful Montmorency Falls reinforced by this remarkable development, so far and yet so near.

One other large electric power-transmission affecting the industrial future of Canada remains to be noticed,—viz., that of the St. Lawrence



ONE OF THE PENSTOCKS LEADING FROM BULKHEAD, NINE FEET IN DIAMETER.

Power Company, at Massena, on the Grasse River, a tributary of the great outlet of the Lakes to the sea. This is literally one of the last great steps in the long continental stair or spillway which broadens out as it loses height: so that at Massena a fall of barely 40 feet is available, or only one-quarter that afforded at Niagara, to the westward. At this point upon the St. Lawrence millions of dollars have already been spent on development and thousands of electrical horse-power are already under contract. This courageous American enterprise has still to justify itself financially, but is most promising in days of long transmissions and dear coal. Ogdensburg, N. Y., is but 38 miles off, and Montreal, again, is only 98 miles to the north-east. The possibilities are therefore most encouraging. The power-house already in operation will be not less than 700 feet long when finished.

THE STEEL CORPORATION POINTS THE WAY.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

AN occurrence of tremendous and far-reaching importance is the success of the United States Steel Corporation's wage-earners' investment and profit-sharing plan. When this plan was announced, January 1, every thoughtful man in the country gave it close attention. Here was an experiment which any one could see drove straight at the roots of the interwoven problems which have been brought acutely to the front by the development of modern industrialism in America,—the problems of actual ownership of the great industrial corporations, of the relations of such corporations to the predominant opinion of society and therefore to the lawmaking power, of the relations of labor and capital, and the bearing of all these upon the rise of socialism. The deep significance of the experiment all could understand, though of course some minds had a truer appreciation of it than others. With all, the question of questions was, Will it succeed? To many lips came the expression: "It is a clever, an artistic, an ingeniously contrived plan; but, will it work? Will the wage-earners take hold of it in earnest? Is it anything more than a delightful dream?"

We have not been compelled to wait long for the answer. The directors of the Steel Corporation offered 25,000 shares of stock to their 163,000 employees. The books were to be kept open thirty days. No one dared believe that within this month, while the plan was so new, while all sorts of prejudices or fears might deter subscribers, and while the great mass of employees would still be studying and thinking about the offer which to them must have seemed somewhat novel and complicated, all or even one-half of the proffered stock would be taken up. Yet, when the books closed Saturday evening, January 31, it was found that the 25,000 shares offered had been subscribed for more than twice over. Twenty-seven thousand six hundred and thirty-three employees had subscribed for 51,125 shares. This was success,—success complete and surprising.

Almost exactly one-sixth of the vast army of employees of the corporation had declared that they wished to become owners of the securities of the company for which they work. Best of all, the very men who, it had been feared, would not take kindly to the project,—the men who stand bare-bodied in front of the furnace-fires, or like magicians handle the glowing rails or

bars of molten metal, or delve in the gloomy mines, or watch the myriads of machines, or keep the books in the offices,—have most eagerly responded to the company's offer. Those who thought that the real workingman, the man who works with his hands for daily or weekly wages, would not participate in this plan, must be agreeably disappointed by the returns. Look at the facts:

Fifty per cent. of all the subscribers (14,260 men), taking nearly 60 per cent. (29,013) of all the shares subscribed for, belong to Class E, which is composed of men who receive salaries of between \$800 and \$2,500 a year each.

Forty-four per cent. of all the subscribers (12,170 men), taking nearly 30 per cent. (15,038) of all the shares subscribed for, belong to Class F, which is composed of men who receive salaries of less than \$800 a year each.

Ninety-four per cent. of the subscribers earn from \$2,500 a year downward, and their subscriptions amount to nearly 90 per cent. of the total. Only six per cent. of the subscribers, taking only about 10 per cent. of the shares, belong to the classes of employees in which may be found managers, superintendents, and the higher-salaried officials of the company. These men wanted many more shares, but, under the limitation set, were unable to get them.

When the directors of the corporation met early in February to receive the reports of the success or failure of their project, they found themselves embarrassed by the opulence, not annoyed by the meagerness, of the results. Gratified beyond measure, they voted to allot a total of about forty-five thousand shares among the subscribers. The 12,170 men from the lower ranks of the army, in Class F, were allotted all the shares they subscribed for; the 14,260 men in the class just above them were allotted 90 per cent. of their subscriptions. The higher classes, D, B, C, and A, composed of large-salaried officials, had their subscriptions, aggregating about 7,000 shares, scaled to 80, to 70, to 60, and 50 per cent., respectively. Every man who subscribed got at least one share of stock.

Nearly one-sixth of all the employees of the Steel Corporation have thus become purchasers of the preferred stock of the company, to the extent of \$4,500,000 par value. Of this sum, \$4,000,000 is taken by employees whose earnings range from \$500 or \$600 a year upward to \$2,500.

If such a result as this can be attained at the first trial, within a single month,—if the restraint of prejudice and of lack of acquaintance with a new project can be overcome to so great an extent in so short a time,—thoughtful men are asking, What may not be done in the future? What are the ultimate possibilities of the plan in this single corporation? And as applied to all great industrial corporations? If \$4,500,000 of good dividend-paying securities may be disposed of to the actual workers for one corporation in one month, is it not possible to dispose of hundreds of millions of such safe and standard securities to the employees of hundreds of industrial corporations in the course of a year? And if this can be done,—if ownership of our great industrial combinations can be spread out among the men who work for them, if aggregations of capital may thus be democratized, or what Federal Judge Grosscup called the other day “peopleized,”—are we not finding herein a natural and easy solution of the industrial, political, and social problems which to many keen eyes appear to be rising like a cloud above the national horizon?

Nothing succeeds like success. Now that the employees' investment and profit-sharing plan of the United States Steel Corporation has so quickly demonstrated what may be done, men are everywhere saying that there may be, should be, and probably will be, an enormous extension of the principle throughout the country. It has long been a cause of wonderment to many observers that so few of what is called the working or the wage-earning class in this country put their savings directly into the stocks or bonds of transportation or manufacturing corporations. As a rule, the men who work for wages never think of buying a share of stock or a bond. They do not know how to go about it. The idea is wholly foreign to their philosophy. In their minds, stocks and bonds are associated with large accumulations of capital, with Wall Street, with speculation, with the world of finance, which is not their world, and which they would be foolish to try to enter. The facilities for buying one or two shares of stock or one or two hundred dollars' worth of bonds are not within the reach of the average workman,—or he thinks they are not, which amounts to the same thing. It is the almost invariable rule that men who work for wages invest their savings in real estate,—homes for themselves, and occasionally an extra building lot or two,—in life insurance, or in savings-banks or building associations. In the United States, nearly seven million depositors have in the savings-banks the vast sum of \$2,800,000,000. Probably two-

thirds of these deposits are in the name of wage-earners. The average interest-increment upon these enormous savings is small,—two or three per cent. a year.

If the wage-earners could be induced to put their money into industrial securities,—and the experience of the Steel Corporation shows that they can be,—it is not easy for the mind to grasp the ultimate possibilities of the ensuing popular ownership of great corporations. Once the movement is started, once wage-earners learn the *modus operandi* of buying such securities and discover that they can net a much higher rate of interest for the use of their money, the aggregate amount of their yearly investment may reach surprising figures. The change cannot come at once, as by a sudden inspiration or quick revolution of ideas and methods. It must be brought about gradually. Indispensable conditions are:

1. Facilities for buying stock should be offered by the managers of the corporations, so that the business of selling such securities shall not fall into the hands of brokers who might prey upon investors by “working off” upon them paper of doubtful value.

2. The stock offered employees must be first-class, safe, of assured permanent value and dividend-earning power.

3. The operations of the corporations, in great detail and perfect frankness, should be placed yearly before the public, after the manner now observed by the life insurance companies, most of the railway companies, and a few of the industrial companies, the Steel Corporation itself being a conspicuous example of the last-named class.

4. Offerings of stock should be made to employees by all high-class corporations, not benevolently, not with any altruistic or sentimental notions, but purely as a matter of business. The standard of self-respect and of pride and dignity is quite as high among the wage-earners as among people who employ, and the workers for salaries quickly and keenly resent, and view with a most natural and proper suspicion, any effort to “do something for them” or “help them along.” They do not want charity, but a chance to invest their savings prudently and advantageously, as business or professional men invest their surplus.

5. Credit should be granted, with the stock as security for deferred payments, on a purely business basis, just as the credit principle is applied to so many of the other activities of business.

6. Corporations should offer their own stock upon equitable terms, thus making their em-

ployees joint owners with other stockholders of the properties they serve, attaching them to the company with the bonds of self-interest.

7. Profit-sharing could well be associated with stock-investment, the latter affording a most excellent basis for the former, upon the principle that the thrifty and careful man who works well and saves his money and invests his surplus in the securities of the concern is a more valuable employee than the one who does not do these things, and is properly entitled to some reward beyond his wages and his dividends. Profit-sharing can thus be made a method of increasing wages to those who are most worthy of it and who give the best service to their employers.

The success of the Steel Corporation's experiment has shown that no good reason exists why the sterling stocks of the country should not be largely placed in the hands of the people. It is true that under present conditions wage-earners do indirectly invest their savings in industrial securities. They put their money in the savings or other banks, or in the life insurance companies, and these companies in turn buy and hold vast sums of bonds and stocks of various sorts. It is true, in this sense, that all the great railway and steamship, insurance and manufacturing, corporations, some of which are known as "trusts," are owned by the people at large, by hundreds of thousands and millions of stockholders, and not by a few rich men, as is generally supposed. But this is quite a different thing from the direct ownership which is proposed by the new movement. Depositors in savings-banks or holders of policies in insurance companies as a rule know or care nothing about the ultimate investment of their deposits or premiums. They look only to the bank or to the insurance company. They have not the slightest sense of proprietorship or of personal interest in the corporations whose securities may be in the vaults of the insurance company or bank. The moral effect of direct ownership and direct and distinct personal interest is entirely lost. The corporation whose securities lie in the vaults of his savings-bank or insurance company is to the depositor or policy-holder a distant, shadowy, perhaps unknown entity. But the corporation whose stock or bond he has in his bureau drawer, or deposited for safekeeping elsewhere, which he has partly or wholly paid for with his own hands out of his hard-earned savings, and the dividend which he and his family reckon upon as a part of their income, becomes to him a living reality, a part of his life and hope. If it chances to be—as it should be—the very corporation for which he is working day after day and year after year, if he

feels as he toils that he is a part owner of the establishment and has a stake in its success and prosperity, then we are reaching the best possible substitute for the abolition of small individual ownership which modern industrial development has decreed. We are doing quite as much for the corporations as for the wage-earner who has thus become a joint proprietor in his small way. We are attaining a condition which will reconcile the masses of the people to the existence of giant corporations, if anything can reconcile them, and while we are doing something for the wage-earning investor and profit-sharer and the corporation which has taken him in and given him a stake in the company, we are also doing very much for society and government and for the wholesome regulation of public opinion. It needs no vivid imagination to follow out the possible and probable social and political effects.

It has been the pride of Americans that we have no classes in our country,—at least, not in the European sense. No greater misfortune could happen than class development. Nor could that misfortune assume more sinister form than in the upbuilding of a small class of corporation owners and managers who remain distinct and apart from the great mass of the people,—a condition in which the vast majority would be naturally imbued with a spirit of antagonism to the little minority who controlled employment, production, and, to some extent, at least, the prices of commodities, this antagonism becoming acute and perhaps threatening under special circumstances. It may be said, with much truth, that there is little real danger of such development in a country like ours, where public opinion is still in such wholesome state, and where, in the absence of true classes, society is in a condition of flux and of sympathy and interchange from the very top almost to the very bottom. And yet, during the past few years we have seen the rise of the anti-trust spirit, in some minds assuming a virulent phase; we have seen in certain strata an outcropping of fierce hatred of wealth; we have seen,—at least, those who have cared to look beneath the surface have seen,—a considerable though not as yet alarming growth of socialism. A recent episode at Washington, wherein the mere name of the head of a great monopolistic trust signed to a telegram created a furore from one end of the country to the other, served to indicate a tendency of the public mind which prudent men will take into consideration in their reckonings for the future.

Clearly, there could be no better means of strengthening our social and political system

and warding off whatever danger this tendency may present than by diffusion of the ownership of public corporations throughout the warp and woof of society. The remarkable young business man who designed the Steel Corporation's plan and was aided by a broad-minded and far-sighted board of directors in putting it into operation fully understood the philosophy of this question. Mr. George W. Perkins had come to this understanding through a good school. All his life he had been mingling with the people, and in this he has a decided advantage over many of his New York contemporaries, for he had mingled with the people of the great West, among whom the present and future of America are best studied. All his life, too, he had been managing men. As one of the active forces of a great life insurance company, he had been engaged in strenuous competition for business. He soon discovered that a successful fight for business means something more than having so many agency managers, sub-managers, and solicitors. It means that the spirit of enthusiasm must be breathed into the men; that they must be made to feel that the interests of the company are truly their interests; that their stake in the general success is as great as that of the heavy shareholders; that they all belong to a happy and sympathetic family, in which there is a sure and ample reward for faithfulness and efficiency; that there is more in the work for them than the usual commissions and salaries; and that once they demonstrate their usefulness the company will take care of them in adversity and provide for their dependents should they fall by the wayside.

Though it would be most interesting and instructive to describe in detail the profit-sharing method by which the life insurance company in question worked out this problem, it must suffice here to say that the success achieved was unmistakable and far-reaching. The men seemed transformed. They were imbued with a new spirit. They came to look upon the affairs of the company as "ours," not "theirs." They talked of what "we" were doing and hoped to do. In short, they were bound to the corporation by new ties, stronger and closer than any that had theretofore existed. In an incredibly short time, the company found itself in possession of an agency system which was the envy of all its rivals. Competitors attempted to cut in and lead away some of these men,—these more strenuous, more efficient, more successful workers,—but without avail. Liberal offers of larger commissions and higher salaries were without effect. The family was too happy, too content, to be broken up. Not a man succumbed to tempta-

tion; and to-day the company is getting its full share of business at less proportionate cost than any of its rivals, and with the tremendous satisfaction of knowing that it has a staff full of loyalty and determination which may be depended upon at all times and in any emergency.

This success of the life insurance manager who knows men and had made it his life-study to win their confidence and get from them the best of which they were capable was the forerunner of the Steel Corporation's plan. Mr. Perkins believed human nature was much the same in the steel business as he had found it in the insurance business. He believes now that the managers of other corporations will find it about the same everywhere, no matter in what part of the industrial field they may be operating. In devising his plan of the Steel Corporation, Mr. Perkins had in mind this central idea:

The chief danger threatening a vast corporation whose work is carried on by an army of 168,000 men is lack of individual interest. It is the danger of heaviness and inertia, of ruts and stagnation. Men must be stimulated to individual initiative and greater efficiency. The way must be found to bind them to the corporation with stronger ties than those of mere salary—or wage-earning. Men must have a stake in the success of the company higher and better than a simple desire to hold their places. We must make a great democracy of this business, not an autocracy, nor even an oligarchy. We need the warm interest and hearty coöperation of every employee, from the president down to the boy who drives a mule in a Lake Superior iron mine.

How to weld this army together and put *esprit du corps* into its ranks, was the problem. The solution decided upon, and now tested with such gratifying results, will probably serve as a model for many other corporations. It is not supposed to be a perfect plan, and in its details it may not be adaptable to all corporations. But the principle is there, and the proportions are symmetrical and harmonious. Henry C. Frick, H. H. Rogers, P. A. B. Widener, Norman B. Ream, Robert Bacon, Albert H. Gary, and Mr. Perkins, the members of the Finance Committee, saw at once that their plan must be divided into two main branches. One was to interest a large number of employees by inducing them to become permanent stockholders. The other was to engage the services of presidents, officers, managers, and superintendents, and all others charged with responsibility, on a profit-sharing basis. It was early perceived that at the present time it would not be practicable to apply profit-sharing directly to the great number of

men who work with their hands throughout all the ramifications of the corporation's activities. But profit-sharing was indirectly included in the offer made to these employees, and of which such a large number have already availed themselves. In other words, the company's proposal was to share profits with all employees who would demonstrate their interest and thrift by buying the company's stock. Consequently, the great bulk of the stock set aside for purchase by employees was offered to the men who earn the smallest salaries. This was done by dividing the 168,000 employees into six classes, according to their salaries—Class A, over \$20,000 a year; Class B, \$10,000 to \$20,000, down to Class E, \$800 to \$2,500 a year, and Class F, under \$800 a year—and then by limiting the amount of stock employees could take to the following proportions of their annual salaries: Class A, 5 per cent.; Class B, 8 per cent.; Class C, 10 per cent.; Class D, 12 per cent.; Class E, 15 per cent.; and Class F, 20 per cent. It will thus be seen why 90 per cent. of all the stock subscribed for in January goes to the two classes of mechanics and workmen whose salaries are under \$2,500 a year.

The method is really a very simple one. Employees subscribe for stock, one or two shares apiece. The shares cost \$82.50, or less than the market value. Each employee pays in monthly installments, taken from his wages, and he may have the payments made small or large, as he likes, save that not more than 25 per cent. of his wages may be so used in any month, and he may not be more than three years in completing payment. Dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. a year go to the subscriber from the date of his first payment. Interest at 5 per cent. is charged on the deferred payments. In other words, the corporation sells stock below the market price, on credit, and pays the holder 2 per cent. a year in dividends more than he has to pay in interest. Here is a direct inducement to the investment of savings. But this is not all. Inducements are offered the employee to complete payment for his stock and to hold it. As soon as he has fully paid for it, the certificate is issued in his name, and he is free to dispose of it. But to make it worth his while to hold it and at the same time keep his place as a working partner in the company's service, the corporation says to him: "If you hold your stock, and beginning with January next year you show it to the treasurer of your company, and present a letter from the proper official that during the preceding year you have been in the employ of the company, and have shown a proper interest in its welfare and progress, and you do this each January for five

years, we will give you, in addition to the dividends paid you, a bonus of five dollars per share for each year. During the second period of five years, we will pay you a further yearly bonus, as a reward for your continuous faithful service." The amount of the second bonus cannot now be fixed, but it will doubtless be larger than the first one. Ample provision is made for the protection of subscribers who from one cause or another are unable to complete payment. Subscribers who discontinue payments get their money back and keep the difference between the 7 per cent. dividends and the 5 per cent. interest. In the case of subscribers who die or are disabled while faithfully serving the corporation, after having paid for their stock, the five dollars per share yearly bonus is not lost, but is paid over to them or to their estates.

It would be worth the while of any reader of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* to sit down and figure out the profits of a rolling-mill worker who subscribed for, say, two shares of stock and undertook to pay for them in one year. The shares would cost him \$165. His monthly payments would be \$13.75. Five per cent. interest on these deferred payments would be about \$3.75. At the end of the year he would own his stock outright, and get the \$14 in dividends, or \$10.25 over the interest. If he remained in the service of the company for five years, he would in that period draw in dividends \$66.25, and \$50 in yearly bonuses of \$5 a share. His total outgo for the five years would be \$165; total income, \$116.25. And he would then have, as his own, free of all charges, an investment bringing him perpetually \$14 a year, and at least \$24 a year as long as he remained in the service of the Steel Corporation.

It is the announced intention of the corporation to make another offer of stock next year, and the outlook is that the shares will be subscribed for many times over. The broad-viewed men who are guiding the destinies of this, the greatest corporation in the world, have caught the spirit of the democratization or "peopleizing" of our industrial combinations. At the present time, there are about ninety thousand holders of Steel Corporation shares. It is probably safe to predict that within five years there will be a quarter of a million stockholders. Ultimately, the great bulk of these securities will be diffused among the people.

One of the directors of the Steel Corporation, in speaking of the programme to secure popular or widely distributed ownership of its shares, pointed to the fact that in France hundreds of thousands of workmen and peasant farmers are owners of the stock of the *Credit Foncier*, *Credit*

Lyonnais, and other banking and industrial corporations. "There is a widely prevalent impression," he added, "that the bulk of the Steel Corporation shares are owned by Mr. Morgan and a coterie of men about him. This is not true. Mr. Morgan's relations to the reorganization of the steel properties have never been properly understood. Let us assume, for the sake of a simple explanation, that two or three years ago the managers of the various steel companies had gone to Washington and asked the Government to take over their properties for the sake of conserving industrial prosperity. Assume, also, that the Government had accepted the trust, and that Congress had authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds to pay for the properties. In such a case there would be no question that the people of the United States owned the steel plants. The title would be in their name, their money would have been used in making the purchase. It is precisely in this light that we of the United States Steel Corporation look upon the relations of the company to the people. It is their property, they have made it what it is, and they should have possession of it through diffusion among them of the stock certificates which represent its ownership. Mr. Morgan's relation to the transaction has been precisely the same as would have been that of the Secretary of the Treasury in the impossible case we have supposed of direct popular purchase through government agency."

The second or direct profit-sharing part of the Steel Corporation plan is also based upon the principle of democracy. When the various companies were merged into one gigantic corporation, the subsidiary concerns were managed, usually, by men who had a very large personal pecuniary interest in them, and who gave to the affairs of the companies not only their time, but the best efforts of which they were capable. In devising this plan, the aim was to maintain the same important incentive, but, instead of having it center in comparatively few men, so to distribute its effect throughout the corporation that every man would feel he had again become a

partner and would work from that point of view. In other words, the purpose is to stimulate individual initiative and to overcome that tendency to inertia and stagnation which many have feared may ultimately work the destruction of such vast organizations. The company proposes to distribute among its responsible men 1 per cent. of the net earnings if the net earnings during the present year shall exceed \$80,000,000 and be less than \$90,000,000, and to increase the sum distributed one-fifth of one per cent. for every ten million dollars added to the net earnings. If during this year, as is not unlikely, the net earnings reach the total of \$140,000,000, the sum distributed among the men who have helped make that great success will be \$3,150,000. This is profit-sharing on a great scale. The corporation reserves the right to make the distribution according to the judgment of the Finance Committee, as a reward of merit and not *pro rata*. At the present time, there are in the employ of the Steel Corporation and its subsidiary companies approximately 1,750 men who receive salaries in excess of \$2,500 a year, divided as follows:

Twelve with salaries of \$20,000 a year and over, including the \$100,000 salary of the president of the corporation itself.

Fifty from \$10,000 to \$20,000 a year.

Two hundred from \$5,000 to \$10,000 a year.

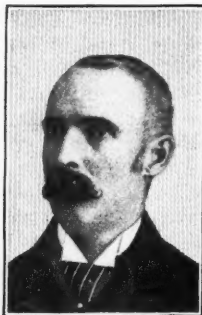
Fifteen hundred from \$2,500 to \$5,000 a year.

By giving its employees opportunity and inducement to save their earnings and invest them in the shares of the company, by making even the humblest workman an indirect participant in the profits of the concern for which he works, by setting aside a share of the profits for annual distribution among the men whose skill and judgment, whose yes or no, enter so largely into the economies and successes or failures of the giant organization, and by taking the public into confidence through full and frank reports of all operations, the United States Steel Corporation has pointed out the path which it is believed many other industrial companies will be glad to follow.





W. H. IRVINE.
(Premier and Attorney-General.)



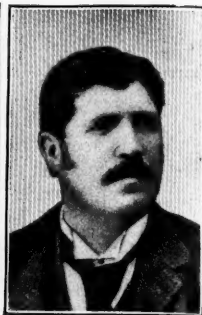
W. SHIELS.
(Treasurer.)



R. REID.
(Education and Public Health.)



J. W. TAVERNER.
(Agriculture and Public Works.)



JOHN. MURRAY.
(Chief Secretary and Minister for Labor.)

A TYPICAL GROUP OF AUSTRALIANS.

THE ten faces on this page are those of the recently constituted cabinet that governs the Australian province of Victoria. They are presented here, not for any reason of exceptional timeliness or interest, but because Americans naturally like to be reminded once in a while of the men of their own speech and of kindred stock who are developing the progressive industrial and political communities of Australia and New Zealand.

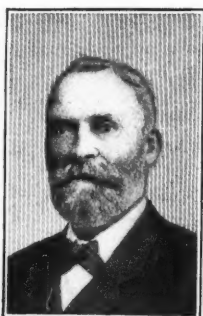
These ten, then, are portrayed simply as forming a typical group. They are in charge of the government of an English-speaking state at the Antipodes. Their offices indicate significantly the scope of governmental activity in Victoria. Mr. Irvine, the prime minister, acts also as attorney-general. Mr. Shiels, the treasurer, is presumably a finance minister. Mr. Davies, the solicitor-general, holds a legal office that one finds in all British colonies. The other

cabinet ministers, apart from Mr. Kirton, who belong to the executive group without special portfolio, all hold offices that indicate the high development of public functions in Australia.

Thus, the interests of Public Education and Health are grouped and given the dignity of cabinet rank. We have not yet got so far in the United States. Agriculture and Public Works are associated together, while Labor has a full cabinet officer of its own. That Mines and Water-Supply should have a cabinet office points both to the importance of the mining interests of Victoria and also to the vital relation that water-supply bears both to that industry and to the public welfare. Victoria has a minister of Railways because there is in that province public ownership and operation of railway lines. The Land department is also of cabinet rank because of its great importance under the public-land policy that the Victorians pursue.



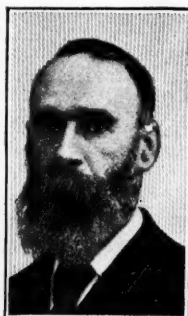
J. W. KIRTON.
(Without portfolio.)



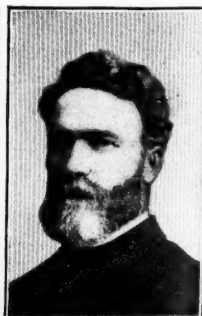
E. H. CAMERON.
(Mines and Water Supply.)



MR. BENT.
(Railways.)



J. M. DAVIES.
(Solicitor-General.)



MR. M'KENZIE.
(Lands.)

THE FIRST PARLIAMENT OF AUSTRALIA.

BY HUGH H. LUSK.

THE first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia has been prorogued after a session which has lasted, with two or three short adjournments, fully seventeen months. It may be doubted whether, since the days of the Long Parliament, there has ever been an instance of a parliamentary session of such a record length as this, but it must be remembered that the work thrown on the legislature of the new federation was necessarily heavy, and also that the conditions under which it had to be done were somewhat exceptional. As all the departments of the government,—whether new, as in the case of the Defense Department of the commonwealth and its electoral machinery, or merely taken over from the various state governments, as in those of the customs and post-office,—demanded a new organization, and proper legal machinery to provide for their efficient administration, it is manifest that the work could not be shortly or easily disposed of in any case. When to this there had to be added the difficulty that the work had to be performed by an executive which could count upon the support of a very limited majority of votes in one chamber of the Parliament, and of no majority at all in the other, it cannot be wondered at that the session was a tedious one.

STATE AND FEDERAL FINANCES.

The difficulties with which the Australian cabinet had to grapple in the first session of the federal Parliament were largely financial in their character, and arose partly from the conditions under which the federation itself was brought about, and partly from the constitution of the first legislature. The conditions under which the federation of the six states now forming the Australian Commonwealth took place were somewhat peculiar. For perhaps the first time in the history of such federations of states there was no external pressure, either actual or anticipated, to render union almost a necessity of existence. The colonies had managed their own affairs, each for itself, for nearly half a century, and in every case they had done it with success. They had built up their own fiscal and other policies as suited themselves, without interference, and mainly on the strength of the revenues derived from their fiscal arrangements they had borrowed very largely for public works. The time

had come when they were willing to forego some of their independence of action, chiefly on grounds of sentiment, but the reasons prompting the desire for union were by no means strong enough to render them—or at any rate some of the more important colonies—willing to sacrifice very much to secure a federal union. A federal government manifestly implied a federal revenue, and this practically involved the existence of federal custom-houses and a federal tariff.

It was equally clear that unless the commonwealth should assume the state debts, the interest on which was largely provided for by import duties, the states could not surrender this most important part of their revenue without conditions. There were great difficulties in the way of the assumption of state debts by the new commonwealth, and after much negotiation the idea was finally abandoned by the convention on the ground that the indebtedness of the various states bore such different proportions to their revenues that it was hopeless to try to induce the wealthier colonies to agree that in the future their taxation should bear the burden of their neighbors' extravagance. The difficulty was at last got over by the framers of the constitution agreeing to the somewhat clumsy expedient of imposing on the commonwealth, so long as the debts remained a charge against the state governments, the duty of raising through customs and excise duties a sufficient revenue to enable them to refund to each state a sum as nearly as possible equivalent to what it obtained in this way before federation, less the cost of the department and the proportionate share of each state in the maintenance of the federal government. As this meant, for the present year, the imposition of customs taxation amounting to nearly \$10 a head on the inhabitants of the whole commonwealth, the problem was by no means a simple one.

PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

As might have been expected, it was here that parties, and to a very great extent states, found their natural point of political cleavage. It was admitted that the money must be raised by a customs tariff; the question remained on what principle the tariff should be constructed,—with a view to revenue only, or to revenue im-

posed with special reference to the protection of Australian industries? The question of free-trade *versus* protection is no new one in Australia. For fully thirty years it has been fought in the two wealthiest and most populous colonies of the group, with the result that Victoria,—which, thirty years ago, was by far the wealthiest and most populous colony of Australia, became and has continued to be the champion of high protection,—while New South Wales,—which, thirty years ago, had only two-thirds the population, and only a slightly larger proportion of the wealth and commerce of Victoria,—became the acknowledged champion in Australasia of a policy of free trade. Each of the colonies has been prosperous, and for years Victoria could boast that she alone of the colonies had built up native industries to any considerable extent. On the other hand, New South Wales, under her free-trade policy, has gradually gained ground, till within the last ten years she has first equaled and then surpassed her neighbor both in population and in wealth of every kind. It was natural that the representatives of each of these states, containing between them almost exactly two-thirds of the population of the commonwealth, should carry with them the fiscal views of their people into the federal Parliament.

The Victorian policy had the advantage that the first premier had been selected, not on grounds of local policy, but as the champion of federation in New South Wales, the mother colony of the group, and the one whose adhesion had been the most difficult to secure, and he had secured as his colleagues men who were without exception protectionists. While New South Wales had only reluctantly agreed to federate, Victoria had from the first been the most enthusiastic advocate of the commonwealth idea, mainly, it was said, because her leaders believed that they could thus secure a larger protected market for their manufactured goods, and so might regain the supremacy they had lost. The other four states of the commonwealth have hitherto had no strong opinions on the fiscal question. The necessities of all had compelled them to resort to high customs duties, but none of them had as yet developed any considerable manufactures of their own, and they were hardly prepared to take any stand on the question as one of principle. Of the 72 members who form the representative chamber of the Commonwealth Parliament 26 represent New South Wales, and 23 Victoria, the remaining 23 being divided among the other four states. It was found that, on the whole, the members favoring each set of views on the tariff question were about equal in numbers, while there was a compact body of 14

votes representing labor, and willing to support the cabinet in return for special concessions in the tariff to the interests of the workers.

THE NEW FEDERAL TARIFF.

The tariff originally proposed by the government was framed on lines of extreme protection, with special reference to the languishing industries of Victoria; it was inevitable that the opposition, mainly representing New South Wales, should fight tooth and nail to prevent its becoming law. The result of the struggle, which lasted almost without a serious interruption for nine months, has been a compromise which leaves the tariff of the commonwealth neither one thing nor the other. There can be little doubt that in debating power and political generalship the victory lay generally with the opposition; but after all the result, so far as it was a victory for the party of free trade, was due to the action of the Senate.

To many, and apparently not least to the cabinet, the prompt and effective interference of the Senate in a question of taxation, which was generally supposed to be practically placed by the constitution almost as much beyond their control as custom has placed it beyond that of the House of Lords in England, was a great surprise, and as the first test of the respective powers of the two chambers of the legislature it can hardly fail to be of great political importance. It was provided by the constitution not only that all bills involving the taxation of the people, directly or indirectly, should, as in this country, originate in the representative chamber of the legislature, but further that such bills should not be altered or amended in their passage through the Senate. As a concession to the less populous states, it was agreed when the constitution was framed that while only the chamber, elected on a strict basis of population, should impose or control taxation, the Senate, in which all the states enjoy, as in America, equal representation, should have the right to suggest, for the consideration of the other chamber, any amendments it thought desirable in any money bill sent on for its assent. This provision, mild and inoffensive as it was supposed to be, has now been used in a way to upset the policy of the government, and practically to compel the assent of the representative chamber to the views of a Senate majority. The tariff bill as passed by the government majority was subjected to an exhaustive criticism by the Senate, and finally fully fifty items of the schedule imposing duties were referred back to the representative chamber, with a request for their reconsideration and reduction or excision.

The government attempted to meet the difficulty by agreeing to a few trifling amendments on the lines suggested, and got the chamber peremptorily to reject all the others, sending the bill back in effect as it was. To this the Senate replied by calmly adhering to the views it had already expressed, and sending the bill back again for further consideration, allowing it to be pretty plainly understood that, in the event of their views being ignored, they would place their reasons on record and reject the bill altogether, thus preventing any uniform tariff being established during the session. Face to face with so grave a difficulty the cabinet gave way, and agreed to a compromise which they would not have dreamed of doing but for the action of the Senate, with its free-trade majority of two votes.

The immediate result of the long struggle has been the passing of a tariff act which pleases neither party, but will apparently raise the required revenue of \$40,000,000, needed to meet the wants of the federal and state governments. On all hands the settlement is admitted to be only temporary, and it is probable that its alteration will form the one great issue at the next elections, which will take place of necessity within a year from this time, and may take place sooner as the result of a dissolution, should the cabinet find its position too difficult when the Parliament meets for its next session, in a few months. A more important result of the fiscal conflict will be found in the fact that it has practically divided public opinion in Australia into two well-defined sections, so that hereafter, and probably for a long time, protection and free trade are nearly certain to be the badges of party in the commonwealth. It is a little difficult to predict the result of the next appeal to the electors on the fiscal question, but most of the indications at present point to a victory for the present opposition party. There can be no doubt that feeling in New South Wales, which has a population of nearly 1,500,000 out of the four millions of the commonwealth, is strongly adverse to the government, and may very likely send at least twenty out of its twenty-six representatives into the opposition camp, while feeling in Queensland, which sends nine representatives, is also very strong, and may lead to a nearly unanimous opposition vote from that state. These two eastern states contain at present very nearly one-half the population of Australia, and their almost unanimous agreement would inevitably be fatal to any administration to which it was opposed, as in every one of the states, with the exception of Victoria, there is a strong minority in favor of a free-trade policy and opposed to the present government.

IMMIGRATION AND CONTRACT LABOR.

The other legislation of the session, while it has neither consumed the time nor engrossed the attention given to the tariff, is likely to prove more satisfactory, as well as more permanent. The acts passed have been very few in number, but each of them may be regarded as being of considerable importance to the future of Australia. The first measure, with the exception of a temporary supply bill, which the Commonwealth Parliament passed, was the act to regulate immigration. It was introduced in deference to the general feeling of the people in favor of what is known as "a white Australia," and its main object is the practical exclusion of Asiatic races, more particularly the natives of China and India. The exclusion of Chinese immigrants has long been attempted by the various colonies, but with only partial success, as the treaty relations between Great Britain and China have rendered direct legislation forbidding their admission impossible. The comparative nearness and accessibility of northern Australia to southern Asia has also been a factor in the problem, which, in connection with the existence of alluvial gold fields at various points on the northern coast, makes the country attractive, and will always render the task of excluding them a difficult one. The Indian immigration is of a different kind, and has been the natural consequence of the establishment of tropical and semi-tropical industries in Queensland under conditions certainly not favorable to white labor. Labor for the sugar, cotton, and other plantations was at first drawn from the nearest of the South Sea islands, the natives of which are known under the general name of Kanakas, until the demand exceeded the supply; since then the planters have obtained contract laborers from southern India, under agreement with the Indian Government.

The act proposed by the cabinet and agreed to by the Parliament is indirect in its action on Chinese and Japanese immigration, but sufficiently peremptory in relation to the question of contract labor both from India and the islands. The device hit upon to exclude free Asiatic immigrants is at present wholly an educational test, which nominally applies to all immigrants who are not British subjects of European origin. It requires that every immigrant above a certain age must be able to write a sentence, to be prescribed by the immigration officer, in one or other of several specified European languages which the applicant professes to understand. The provision has been severely criticised as likely to be easily evaded, but in view of the difficulties surrounding the subject the Parlia-

ment agreed to give it a trial. So far as "contract labor" is concerned the act is decisive, and provides that the introduction of such immigrants shall cease at once, and further that within three years all laborers imported originally under such contracts shall be sent home. The latter provision has given rise to much strong feeling in Queensland, where it is denounced as an attempt to ruin the special industries of the state, and a wholly barbarous outrage against some thousands of colored laborers, both Kanaka and Indian, who had freely consented to waive their legal right to be sent home under the original contract of service, and had settled—some of them for a good many years—in the country as free laborers. It cannot be denied that the new departure, desirable though it certainly was in many respects, must inflict severe loss on the people of Queensland; and it is hardly remarkable that many persons, including even the members of the state government, have threatened that in case nothing is done to mitigate the effects by the Commonwealth Parliament steps will be taken to secede from the federation. The influence of white labor is sufficiently powerful in Queensland to render such an extreme step as this unlikely, but there can be no doubt the opposition will take advantage of the situation to offer some terms to the planters, by way of compensation, which may firmly attach them to their interests at the next elections.

THE NATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE.

A second, and hardly less important measure, was that which organized the civil service of the federal government. The act disposes entirely of the question which has given so much trouble in time past in this country as to the conditions of appointment and promotion in all branches of the civil service of the commonwealth, by taking both entirely out of the region of political patronage, and placing them, subject to definite regulations, in the hands of a permanent board of commissioners, in the appointment of whom the civil servants themselves have a powerful voice. The measure is mainly taken from the civil service law in force in New South Wales, where it has worked satisfactorily, on the whole, for some years past. The two points mainly aimed at by the system are, first, to remove as far as possible from all civil service appointments, from the highest to the lowest, the possibility of advancement unaccompanied by merit and efficiency owing to any external patronage or influence; the second, the establishment of a permanent and independent tribunal to which any member of the service, or of the public, can appeal in case of supposed injustice in the one case, or of

neglect of official duty in the other. The federal judiciary and the officials of the federal courts are not intended to be affected by the act, but will be dealt with under the special measure for the establishment of the federal judiciary which was brought before the Parliament but was not proceeded with during the session. In the meantime a temporary provision has been made to enable the supreme courts of the various states to deal with certain pressing questions of federal administration which do not involve the relations between the states and the Commonwealth Government. Should the bill proposed by the cabinet become law at the next session the effect will be to constitute the federal high court of justice almost exactly on the model of that of the United States, which has evidently been taken as a pattern by the draughtsman.

MILITARY DEFENSE.

A marked feature of the Australian constitution, and one of those in which it diverges most widely from our own, is that which transfers the entire control and management of the defense forces of the country—permanent, militia, and volunteer,—from the states to the federal government. These forces have consisted of the militia and volunteer forces of each colony, and also of a small permanent force—mainly of artillery and engineers—in three of them. In addition to these there were both in New South Wales and Victoria bodies of naval volunteers, and a small permanent naval force, forming skeleton crews for several small men-of-war that had been purchased from the British Government, and were used as training ships for the volunteers. The act passed by the federal Parliament is largely concerned with the arrangement of a single system, to apply to the forces of every kind throughout the commonwealth, under the control of a single commander in chief. It provides for the organizing of a special Department of Defense under a cabinet minister, who is empowered to arrange from time to time with the imperial government for the services of suitable officers of the British army for the commanding, organizing and training of the defense forces of the commonwealth, but with a distinct intimation that the entire ultimate control rests with the minister.

The act contemplates the embodiment and regular training of militia forces in each state, in a settled proportion to the adult male population, and also the permanent embodiment of a small force, which may fairly be regarded as the nucleus of a regular army, though in the meantime it will consist mainly of artillery and engineer corps. In the meantime no change is

proposed in the arrangements at present existing for naval volunteers. This separation of the questions of land and naval defense arose from the position in which the cabinet and Parliament were placed by the arrangements which were actually in progress, while the defense act was under consideration by the Parliament, for an increase of the imperial naval squadron on the Australian station, including a plan by which three of the additional ships shall serve as training ships for volunteers from Australia and New Zealand on a three years' service. This, which may be regarded as one of the most important results of the coronation conference of colonial premiers, will, no doubt, be assented to by the Parliament at its next session, but rather as a matter of experiment than because it is looked on generally as an ideal system. The prevailing feeling throughout the commonwealth—and the one which was given plain expression to by the opposition when the matter was discussed in the Parliament to some extent, was that the commonwealth should embody and maintain a naval as well as a military defense force for itself. It was admitted that no better training could be had for its naval volunteers than that offered, but it was evidently felt that in the event of a naval war the case might arise of Australian volunteers being withdrawn to some other part of the ocean at the very time when their presence might be of most importance at home. The cost of the Defense Department of the federal government for the first year of its separate existence will amount to something short of \$4,000,000,—a reduction of nearly one-fourth upon the estimates as originally proposed,—and while the amount seems to be economical, it is impossible, looking at the provisions of the act itself, to doubt that the cost will largely increase if the system is fully carried into effect.

A GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE.

By far the most extensive, and almost, if not quite, the most important, department of the government service transferred by the constitution to the administration of the federal government was that of the post office. In the case of Australia,—as in that of its neighbor, New Zealand,—the postal service includes also the telegraph and telephone services of the country, which have from the first been incorporated with the post-office. From the first establishment of a telegraph system in all the colonies of Australasia, the telegraph had been regarded only in the light of the most modern development of the postal system, and as such had been treated as a branch of the department. In this form they

were handed over to the federal government, and it became necessary to pass an act to reorganize and unify the various systems that had grown up in the original colonies. The statute by which this is done is interesting in many ways, and not least in the evidence it supplies of the characteristic free-handedness shown by the people of Australia in supplying the needs of the community and of the economy with which it may be done.

LOW RATES FOR TELEGRAMS.

The statistics on which the Australian postmaster-general founded his telegraph rates showed conclusively two things,—that the facilities already supplied in Australia to the public for the use both of telegraph and telephone far exceeded those supplied, either by governments or by private enterprise, in any country of Europe or America in proportion to the number of the population; and further, that the charges for these services were much lower in Australia than in any of those countries. They showed that both in post-offices and telegraph stations the people of the young commonwealth were far better provided for than either in England or America, and, apparently as a consequence, that they made more use of the conveniences, enabling all telegraph rates to be reduced to a point far below those charged elsewhere without any loss to the revenue. The new commonwealth rates provided for in the act illustrate the truth of his boast. For city messages, which includes a suburban area of a radius of 10 miles beyond the city limits, the rate is 12 cents for messages of 10 words and the address; for messages of the same length to any point within the same state,—and the states are generally very much larger than any American State,—the charge is 18 cents, while for similar messages to any station within the commonwealth,—and from Rockhampton, in Queensland, to Perth, in West Australia, the distance of wire is more than 4,500 miles,—the uniform charge is 24 cents. It is calculated, on the basis of past experience, that these rates will return a revenue sufficient to pay operating expenses of every kind, including the cost of maintenance, and in addition interest on the original expense of construction,—amounting to fully \$18,000,000. This apparent anomaly, when compared with American experience, is at least in part explained by the fact that Australians send more than twice as many messages over the lines at the lower rates as Americans do at the present charges, and that where every post-office is also a telegraph station, and every country postmaster a telegraph operator, the cost is greatly reduced.

THE TELEPHONE SERVICE.

The telephone is a convenience of much more recent introduction in Australia than the telegraph, and for a time it appeared doubtful whether it would be taken in hand by the government, or left, as elsewhere, to private enterprise. Finally, however, it was taken in hand by one colonial government after another, and there is now probably not a town possessing a population of 3,000 persons or upwards which is not supplied with a telephone exchange. There are at present, it would appear, fully a hundred more or less important centers of population in the commonwealth supplied with this convenience, and hitherto the cost has differed materially in the different states. This is one of the anomalies which can be done away with as a consequence of the federation, and hereafter the charges will be on a uniform scale, which, compared at least with some of the experiences of older and far more densely peopled countries, would seem to be moderate. There will be three different kinds of telephone service provided, for which different rates will be charged. The business telephone service will give the unlimited use of the telephone at all hours within the limits of the municipality, at an annual charge of \$40.00; for a similar service, including both the town or city, and suburban area, the annual charge will be \$50.00; and for private residences—without any restrictions as to the number of messages, or limitations as to hours, the rate, which would seem to include both town and suburban service—is fixed at a uniform charge of \$25.00. There does not as yet appear to be any provision made for long distances, which probably arises from the fact that the centers of population are widely scattered, nor does any provision seem to be made for public pay stations in the larger cities. As every post-office and branch office in the towns is already a telegraph station however, there can be little doubt that such an extension of the system for the public convenience will be made on reasonable terms as soon as the demand arises.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE.

It was reserved for the Australian Commonwealth to vindicate its claim to be looked upon as thoroughly in sympathy with the most modern political ideas by being the first federation of states to sweep away distinctions of sex in relation to the franchise. One of the colonies

entering the federation had, it is true, already taken this step, and another had a measure before its legislature for the same purpose, but when the federal electoral act was passed, only South Australia had actually conferred the franchise on its female citizens. The new federal statute confers the franchise on all persons in the commonwealth of the full age of twenty-one years, regardless of sex, so that the second Parliament of united Australia will be the choice of the whole people. In the meantime the anomaly will exist in most of the states, that half the persons intrusted with the larger franchise for the Commonwealth Parliament will still be refused a voice in the election of members to their own state legislatures; but such an anomaly may be expected quickly to pass away. The argument in favor of the principle that the greater responsibility must include the less, cannot but be more convincing than the opposite contention; and it may be assumed that within a year or two the practice, which has obtained with complete success in New Zealand for the last ten years, will be extended throughout Australia to all political elections. A new provision, which constitutes a departure from any widely tested system yet in force, provides for voting in certain cases of distance from any polling place by registered letter. The practice has been in force in the colony of West Australia, where the population is exceedingly scattered, and is said to have led to no ascertained abuses in the past; the extension of the franchise to women would seem to be an additional reason for such an arrangement, but its results, when applied on the larger scale now authorized, will be watched with much interest.

It is worthy of remark that the act does not appear, any more than that of New Zealand, on which it appears to have been modeled, to deal with the question of admitting women to seats in the federal Parliament. Public opinion does not as yet appear to have advanced to that point in any part of Australia, for while the franchise question was the subject of keen debate in the Parliament, nobody appears even to have suggested the question of so great a departure from long-established usage. That such a development is logical can scarcely be denied, and that it will follow in the course of time is altogether likely; the female voters of Australia will probably show their good sense if, like their sisters of New Zealand, they are slow to agitate for their full logical privileges.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE VENEZUELAN CRISIS FROM THE BRITISH POINT OF VIEW.

THE attitude and conduct of the British Government in the Venezuelan incident have been sharply censured in the leading English reviews. The tone of this criticism is well represented in an article written by Mr. Sydney Brooks for the February *Fortnightly Review* and entitled "The Venezuelan Imbroglio." Mr. Brooks holds that if England had any serious grievance against Venezuela she should have acted alone, thus retaining the substantial goodwill of the American people. By permitting Germany to cooperate with her, England not only tainted her own case, but saved Germany from the rebuff that any effort to prosecute her claims against Venezuela single-handed would have brought down upon her.

"And for the rest, what have we scored, and in what have we benefited? Have we taught President Castro 'a much-needed lesson?' I hardly think the spectacle of two of the greatest powers in Europe setting out to collect a debt by force, and then, driven back to The Hague or a tribunal at Washington, to submit their claims to arbitration, is one that will greatly discourage South America. Have we succeeded in convincing America that the Monroe Doctrine carries with it certain responsibilities? Every one knows that the diplomatic victory in the whole affair rests with President Roosevelt and Mr. Hay. Have we improved our relations with the American people? Pick up any American journal you please, and you will find the freest expressions given to the amazement with which our course has been received. Have we served any British interest whatever? Not unless it is a British interest to have ourselves paraded the world over in German leading-strings, and to jeopardize our relations with the United States on the Kaiser's behalf. And, finally, are we any nearer to a settlement of our Venezuelan claims? To this, too, the answer is a melancholy and humiliating negative."

AMERICA AND GERMANY.

Mr. Brooks insists that American public opinion is inimical to Germany. Washington watches Germany as Pretoria in the old days watched Johannesburg. The American Navy Department measures its requirements by the growth of the German sea power; and private Americans regard German ambitions as inevitably bringing her athwart the Monroe Doctrine. All

Americans believe that Germany means, if she can, to secure a foothold on South American soil and a naval station in South American waters.

Finally, Mr. Brooks maintains that Lord Lansdowne should have acted as Lord Rosebery acted during the Nicaraguan crisis of 1895. Lord Rosebery was successful because he observed two principles: first, he acted alone; and, secondly, he volunteered the frankest assurances to Washington that no permanent occupation of Nicaraguan territory was intended.

Why the British Ministry Loses Ground.

The editor of the *National Review* is furiously angry about the "Venezuelan mess," and declares that the present supervision of Great Britain's affairs seems to be characterized by a lack of knowledge, a want of grasp, and a baseness of judgment. He intimates plainly that there is no reply to Mr. Meredith's remark that there never was a more powerful government in the House of Commons, nor a more feeble one in conducting the affairs of the nation. He protests against the lord chancellor's attempt to make the newspapers responsible for the fatuity of the cabinet:

"The press's real offense on this question, as on so many others, is not that it thwarts statesmanship or diplomacy,—there is little enough of that, heaven knows, to thwart,—but that when some ghastly blunder becomes public property it *exposes* the incapacity of certain high and mighty personages—most of whom speak greatly above their ability,—in transacting business they do not understand."

An article entitled "A Warning to Germany" charges the government with truckling to Germany. The cabinet is out of touch with public opinion, and it has no time for the vital issues of national policy. The ministry has greatly lost ground of late, and the only man in it who really commands public confidence is Mr. Chamberlain.

VENEZUELA'S REVOLUTIONS.

LORD LANSDOWNE recently attributed to Venezuela one hundred and four revolutions in sixty-seven years. This statement is challenged in *La Revue* for January 15 by M. Garien, who asserts that what we see consistently in Venezuelan history is a series of revolutionary movements, nearly all of which had as their object the restoration of constitutional rule vio-

lated by various presidents. Since 1870, the succession of presidents, with the exception of Castro, has been absolutely regular and constitutional; and the various revolts were directed against the illegal abuse known locally as *continuismo*,—that is, the retention of office by presidents after their legal term had expired. "Instead of destroying order, the revolutionists reestablished it by maintaining obedience to the constitution and the laws."

The case of the present crisis in Venezuela is the abandonment of the Liberal principles which were maintained under the presidency of Blanco from 1870 to 1888. President Castro is a brave man, but is not endowed with any other ruling qualities. His military prowess and his skill in stratagem made him famous. Despot beyond expression, he ill-treated his opponents pitilessly, sequestered their property, and flung them into prison. His enemy Matos is looked upon by many Venezuelans as the destined savior of the state. Matos was minister of finance under Andueza, Crespo, and Andrade, and every time he took office he rehabilitated the finances. To his friends, Matos is the Rouvier of Venezuela. M. Garién evidently thinks that if Matos regained authority he would again save Venezuela, which was financially sound in 1887-88, and can be made so again.

MOROCCO AND THE MOORS.

THE *Fortnightly* for February contains a very interesting and well-written article by Mr. A. J. Dawson entitled "Morocco, the Moors, and the Powers," in which the essence of the Moorish question, as seen from within, is put admirably, and sadly too. For, as Mr. Dawson insists all through his article, it is the essential decadence of the Moorish race, rulers and ruled, which is the secret of all the present troubles. The cave-dwelling aboriginal Berbers of Morocco are the same hardy semi-savages as resented the Moslem invasion a thousand years ago, but the Moors proper are in hopeless decay. The present Sultan is no more capable of dealing with the rebellious mountaineers in the crushing, masterful manner of his ancestors than he is capable of retaking the capitals of Andalusia.

"And that brings one to what is at once the most striking and the most momentous consideration which occupies the minds of understanding students of the Moorish race and the Moorish empire: their unmistakable and essential decadence.

"Human and animal, political and material, national and individual, steady, inexorable, pathetic, and unredeemed, the deterioration is writ

large and clear, and the man who studies may not fail to read and admit the grievous thing, however reluctantly. Indeed, the most reluctant, the most generously partial, are the most assured; the men who have most loyally and affectionately served the Moors are the men most clearly convinced of this unhappy truth. For they have learned the most. They have learned, to name one among examples, the proper enumeration of which would fill a volume, that the national spirit is absolutely and entirely defunct among Moors. It has not suffered an eclipse; it is non-existent."

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

MR. W. B. HARRIS, who recently accompanied the Sultan as a guest of his majesty on his expedition into the Zimmur country, writes in the *National Review* a very interesting article on the crisis in Morocco. He brings out very clearly two things,—first, the extravagance of the Sultan; and, secondly, the fact that the present crisis in Morocco has been brought about by English influence pressing for reforms which enraged fanaticism. As soon as the Sultan came to the throne he developed a morbid craving for every novelty, from the Röntgen rays to automobiles. Photographs, bicycles, billiards, and circuses were introduced.

"Camera succeeded camera, each more costly than the last, until at length cameras of solid gold were reached—then automobiles; but they were heavy and the demand was limited, so diamond tiaras took their place. All the while there was a steady flow of grand pianos and perambulators, billiard tables and steam launches, dairy and laundry fittings, and wild beasts, kitchen ranges, and incubators,—in fact, everything that could be of use—or couldn't—in a Moorish palace. An army might have been organized, fed, clothed, and armed on the money that was thrown away."

With the introduction of these things came English mechanics, photographers, architects, grooms, and non-commissioned officers. The Sultan played lawn tennis with English diplomatists. Just as he looked to individual Englishmen for friendship, so he placed his entire confidence in the British Government. Under English influence, he introduced a reformed system of taxation, which England has as yet failed to introduce into more than one native state in India. He introduced the excellent system of taxation, but owing to the refusal of France to agree to the taxation of her *protégés*, the taxes have not been collected. Other reforms he carried through with a high hand.

THE MACEDONIAN STRUGGLE FOR LIBERTY.

WHILE anarchy is by no means a novel condition in Macedonia, the uprisings of the past six months have served to give the outside world a new conception of the chronic state of desperation in which the people of that unhappy land have suffered for many years. The news of the day has revealed Macedonia as one of the few civilized countries of the world in which anarchy perpetually prevails. It is not difficult to understand how this situation has been brought about, when we consider the proven Turkish incapacity for governing, but there remains a great question of world politics which seems farther than ever from solution. It is this "Macedonian Question" which forms the subject of an article by Mr. Charles Johnston in the *North American Review* for February.

A NATION OF BULGARIANS.

Mr. Johnston's first point relates to the racial affinities of the Macedonian population.

"Of the three million inhabitants of Macedonia, five-sixths are of Bulgarian race and speech, the minority being Turkish soldiers and officials, Greek merchants, priests, and settlers along the Egean, and a district of Vlacks among the Pindus Mountains. To this we must add the Old Servian region in the northwest, very important, as representing the arena of two contesting nationalities. But setting aside these scattered fragments, Macedonia is a land of Bulgarian Slavs, Christians of the Oriental rite, under Musliman rulers, largely of Turkish race. The inevitable resultant anarchy, which has its cause not so much in the malevolence of the Turk as in his administrative impotence, has long attracted the hearty sympathy of the four million Bulgarian subjects of Prince Ferdinand.

"It is to aid their three million brothers in Macedonia that the Bulgarians of the principality form the Macedonian Committees we have heard so much of; and the aims and ideals of these committees have the sympathy of all Bulgarians, including the governing powers, though the means they employ may be repudiated, as is inevitable so long as Bulgaria remains, even nominally, a vassal state of the Sultan."

CRUELITIES AND TORTURES UNCHECKED.

The events of last September and October, which were only imperfectly reported in the American newspapers, are pictured in detail by Mr. Johnston, who proceeds to inquire into the moral, social, and political situation of the country.

As official Russia, for political reasons, has all along been hostile to the Macedonian revolu-

tionary movement, Mr. Johnston thinks it certain that Russian writers are not likely to overstate the seriousness of the conditions from which the movement derives its justification. He therefore accepts as reliable the following picture of the condition of Uskub, the chief town of the northern Macedonian province of Kossova, which appeared in the *Russian Messenger* in September last:

Murder is such a common occurrence in Uskub that people have agreed not to speak of it. The normal life of the city could not go on without it. The cynicism and license of the people have gone so far that they commit murder in sight of the consuls, or before their houses; and the consuls can only protest with horror. But under the present régime, these protests are rarely effective; for the most part, no attention is paid to them, and the consuls can only resign themselves, and accustom their nerves to these things, considering them as an unavoidable evil. In Uskub, no one talks about the daily murders. They are somewhat more interested in general cutting affrays and street battles, or in the open insurrections which are periodically renewed at intervals of less than a year.

Mr. Johnston appends two quotations from "a semi-official pamphlet on the Macedonian question," recently published at Sofia:

Last April, a band of Turkish gendarmes, under the command of Capt. Malik Effendi, met and arrested a certain Constantine Silyanoff, on his way from Kostintsa. The captain suspected him of being a possible revolutionary, and ordered him to be beaten; then they impaled him with a bayonet, drove nails into his flesh, and burned his body with a red-hot iron, to extort confessions of the doings of the revolutionary committee. Silyanoff died a few hours later.

In the village of Mustapha, in the province of Adrianople, there is a Turkish garrison, which terrorizes the population by incessant acts of violence. In April, the soldiers noticed the daughters of the peasant Christak, and attempted to assault them. The neighbors were attracted by their cries, and after a fierce battle succeeded in freeing the unfortunate girls. On the same day, three Bulgarian women returning from market to their village were assaulted by Turkish soldiers. These outrages are of daily occurrence, wherever there are Turkish garrisons.

RELIGIOUS PERSECUTIONS.

As to the part taken by the Greek Church in these persecutions, Mr. Johnston says:

"It is useless to multiply instances, or to speak of the perpetual brigandage, or the religious persecution of Orthodox Bulgarians by the bishops of the Church of Greece. Mr. Gladstone, writing in 1879, said: 'The See of Constantinople, and its followers, little to their credit, ostensibly took the side of the Turks during the late war,' and there is evidence that they have been true to their allegiance, thwarting every expression of Bulgarian national feeling by every means in their power, and losing no opportunity to call

down the penalties of the Turkish inquisition on the schools, churches, language, and aspirations of the Macedonian Bulgarians. If we add this twofold religious persecution to the conditions of civil anarchy already described, the outbreaks of the autumn, which we have chronicled, and the probable uprisings of the coming spring need no further explanation. With the oppression of Turks, Albanians, and Greek ecclesiastics combined, the Bulgarians of Macedonia would be more or less than human, if they did not rebel."

MACEDONIA ONCE FREED BY RUSSIA.

To the question, Why does not Russia intervene and compel Turkey to liberate Macedonia? Mr. Johnston replies:

"The answer of history is all-sufficient, so far as Russia is concerned. Russia did in fact intervene, and, in a campaign which made the battles of the Franco-Prussian war seem somewhat theatrical by comparison, at the cost of hundreds of thousands of Russian lives, and at an immense national sacrifice, did free the Slavs of the Balkans from their Turkish oppressors, including the whole of the three provinces of Macedonia, whose condition we have so fully described.

"For more than four months,—from March 3 to July 13, 1878,—Macedonia was a free province of independent Bulgaria, in virtue of the treaty of San Stefano, dictated by the victorious Russian armies, almost under the walls of Constan-

tinople, after the splendid and dearly bought victories of the Shipka Pass, Lovcha, Plevna, and finally Sheinovo, where the Turks made their last stand under the shadow of the snow-swept Balkans."

RESPONSIBILITY OF ENGLAND AND AUSTRIA.

The action of the powers at the Berlin Congress has led to complications of which Macedonia has been the helpless victim, while Russia has been powerless to aid.

"It is true that eastern Rumelia, with its million Bulgarian inhabitants, escaped from the clutches of Turkey seven years after the Berlin Treaty, and that the signatory powers agreed to connive at this breach of established conditions. But Macedonia still suffers the measureless misery and debasement of Turkish oppression; and the responsibility for this lies, not with Russia, who once set the Macedonian Bulgarians free, and exalted them into a free nationality, but with the Austrian and English Chauvinists who destroyed that nationality, and gave the Macedonians up to the tender mercies of Abdul Hamid and his chosen instruments.

"With Macedonia, Crete and Armenia were substantially liberated by Russia in 1878,—and returned to subjection by Austria and England four months later. There has been international action in regard to Armenia, though without much profit, and the great powers have intervened in concert to restore good government in Crete. The work of the Berlin Congress has, therefore, been condemned, in both Crete and Armenia, by the stern logic of events; and in Macedonia its action, as we have seen, was not less fatal and destructive. The time is evidently coming soon when the great powers must approach the question of Macedonia as they have already approached that of Crete.

"But pending such action by the powers, and especially by those whose Chauvinism in 1878 has had such dire results, we cannot logically expect Russia to intervene. Therefore, Russia has discouraged all attempts of the Macedonian Committees, acting with the Bulgarian Government, to draw her into the Macedonian controversy. She has done what lay in her power, acting through her consuls, establishing new consulates, exercising pressure on the Sultan, cultivating the warmest and most friendly relations with both Serbia and Bulgaria. But these are only half-effective palliatives; the real cure lies in the liberation of Macedonia, and the responsibility for that cure lies with the two nations, Austria and England, who thrust once liberated Macedonia back again under the iron heel of the Turks."



HATCHING TROUBLE.

From the Journal (Minneapolis).

A WOMAN WITNESS OF THE ARMENIAN MASSACRES.

MME. CARLIER, the wife of the French consul in Armenia, kept a diary during that terrible winter of 1895, when Armenia was inundated with Christian blood, and it is this diary which appears practically complete in the second January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. That winter also proved fatal to M. Carlier, who died of disease then contracted.

The journal of his widow begins in August, 1895, and ends in July, 1896. By that time the Carliers' baby, M. Jean de Sivas—as his mother calls him—had cut his eleventh tooth. Mme. Carlier describes admirably the first mutterings of the storm. The Armenians are rising—but what hope can they count on? she asks; and she observes that they are convinced that the United States is more powerful than the English, who, after having made great promises, did not fulfill them, and who have no longer even a consul at Sivas!

M. Carlier wished to send his wife and children away, but the former flatly refused to go; instead, she learned to shoot with musket and pistol, in order to be prepared when the storm burst, which it did in November. Not an Armenian was left in the bazaar,—every man, woman, and child was massacred,—and the firing round the camp of the Carliers was terrific. With extraordinary courage, Mme. Carlier assisted in the defense of her home while the consul was occupied in protecting the French subjects in his district. All over the villages, the massacres went on; at Sivas they counted 1,500 killed; while 300 found themselves houseless, and 400 shops were entirely destroyed.

THE REALM OF THE HAPSBURGS: WILL IT HOLD TOGETHER?

THE internal condition of Austria, as one of the powers most directly concerned in the Eastern question, is a matter of much interest at the present moment. The *Monthly Review* for February publishes the first part of a series of important articles from well-known Austrian politicians on the future of their empire. The question apparently set was whether there is any circumstantial foundation for the rumor of a possible partition of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and the contributors are Dr. Albert Gessmann, leader of the Christian-Social party; Dr. Adolf Stransky, leader of the Young Czech party; and Mr. Franz Kossuth, leader of the Hungarian Independence party. The experiment of getting foreign statesmen of different complexions to write about the future of their

own country is an excellent one, particularly in the case of Austria, about which we have had so many pessimistic prophecies of late. It is remarkable that not one of the three contributors to the February number shares this pessimism.

WHY AUSTRIA MUST REMAIN UNITED.

Dr. Gessmann takes the view that if Austria did not exist she would have to be created, for she fulfills the function of a unifier of the various rival races of central Europe. He does not think the internal rivalry of races threatens the empire at all; for though the various races contend for supremacy, none of them seek union with the adjacent empires. Firstly, Pan-Germanism is impossible. Highly placed German statesmen dread the prospect, the realization of which would upset the hegemony of Protestant North Germany, for the Austrian Germans would certainly ally themselves with the Bavarians, to whom they are related in race, religion, and dialect. The addition of twelve million Austrian Germans to the German Empire would upset the present status altogether.

THE POLES AND BOHEMIANS.

Secondly, the Austrian Poles do not want secession. They would fall under the power of Russia, and they prefer their present limited independence. And the Russians have already enough trouble with their Polish subjects to prevent their desiring a further Slavonic accession. The Czechs are nationally remote from the Russians, and differ from them in religion; united with the Czar's empire, they would lose the important rôle which they play in Austria. The Austrian Italians similarly do not want union with Italy, which is itself almost as little a united state as Austria.

THE HUNGARIAN QUESTION.

Dr. Gessmann sees a final bar to Austrian partition in the existence of Hungary. He says that in the event of partition Russia would have to annex Hungary; and this being so, the Hungarians would be the first to resist the partition of the empire.

Dr. Adolf Stransky takes substantially the same views. He says that while the majority of the Austrian population are dissatisfied with the present state of things, they cannot conceive partition. He repeats Dr. Gessmann's views as to Pan-Germanism, and says that only the nobles and the *bourgeois* of Austrian Italy desire union with Italy. The peasants, under the influence of the hostile local clergy, are inimical to the Italian crown. Pan-Slavism, Pan-Italyism, and Pan-Germanism are indeed generated and backed

by foreign influence. But none of these movements are very dangerous. Prussia is separated from the Austrian-German provinces by a Slavonic wedge which makes union impossible. At the same time, Dr. Stransky considers the possibility of German expansion to the Adriatic, of which he says :

"The results of such an eventuality upon the balance of power are easy to foresee. Germany, with her new frontiers stretching to the Adriatic Sea, would be by far the most powerful state in the world. An increase of many millions of citizens would carry with it no mean advantage ; but, above all, the geographical position of the enlarged empire would render it irresistible. Switzerland, within whose precincts Pan-German influence is already noticeable, would find Germany on its eastern boundary, and be compelled to become, not only intellectually, but politically, a province of the Fatherland. Mistress of Trieste and Pola, Germany could exercise so great a pressure on Italy that the latter would have to accept her rule, or, in order to evade this inconvenience, to declare herself the vassal of France. England would have found a new rival in the Mediterranean, for the occupant of Pola could easily threaten the Suez Canal. But, more than this, Germany would thus have reached the most-coveted frontiers of the East. The Hungarians,—unless they preferred to be merged in the Russian Empire,—would have to act, however reluctantly, as the outpost of Germany on the eastward march. The commercial and diplomatic influence of the German Empire at Constantinople,—already very great,—would be immeasurably increased when once the German navy is in possession of a new Kiel or Wilhelmshaven with forty-eight hours' steam of the Turkish roadstead. In Athens, too, German pressure would be brought to bear. The Balkan states must needs become the humble executors of the German imperial will, and the industrial foundation hitherto laid by Germany in Asia Minor would partake of the highest political significance. It is no exaggeration to pretend that the day the German eagle towered over Vienna, Trieste, and Pola its wings would spread far beyond the Balkan peninsula, the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, and Asia Minor, to the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates. And here a new chapter in the world's history would begin."

But he dismisses these grandiose projects as nebulae.

AN HUNGARIAN VIEW.

Herr Kossuth merely says that no change is probable during the lifetime of the present em-

peror. But he maintains that the present internal organization of the empire is impossible. The sole remedy lies in the personal union of Austria and Hungary, the two states being in other respect entirely separate. This solution would save the empire, as Austria would then become a federated state, and the German-Slav question would be solved. At present, the Slav majority will never accept German domination. As for Hungary's racial question, Herr Kossuth practically denies that it exists, and maintains that the vast majority of the non-Hungarian peoples in the kingdom are loyal Hungarians.

WHY WAR IS IMPOSSIBLE FOR ENGLAND.

THE truth which the late M. Bloch insisted upon so persistently in the last years of his life is gradually coming to be recognized even by the Jingoës. Mr. Bloch held that war had become impossible between the great powers of Europe, because with modern weapons it must be protracted, and no nation could feed people while war was going on. This, which is true of all the Continental nations, with the doubtful exception of Russia, is permanently true of Great Britain. It is said that a strong combined effort is about to be made for the purpose of compelling the British Government to make a searching inquiry into the question of food-supply in time of war.

A ROYAL COMMISSION.

Blackwood's Magazine for February publishes a very emphatic article on the subject, leading up to the conclusion that a thorough and searching inquiry by a select committee or a royal commission should be held without delay. The writer says :

"It is practically certain that on the outbreak of war with a naval power (one power alone) the following events would take place : All our foreign-going sailing ships would be laid up ; some of our slow cargo-carrying steamers would be captured by the enemy's cruisers and armed auxiliaries, already fitted and designed for the purpose. There would be an enormous rise in the rate of marine insurances. A large number of our merchant steamers of only moderate speed would be laid up, those near a neutral port seeking refuge therein. The great bulk of our raw material for manufacture, and nearly all our supply of foreign corn, being carried by comparatively slow ships, would thus be cut off ; or, if any got through, it could only be landed at such enhanced prices for the raw material as to render it commercially unprofitable for manufacture ; and the corn at such prices that the

great majority of the working classes would be unable to buy it in sufficient quantities even with their present wages. But as many millions would be thrown out of work by the dislocation in our trade, they would be getting no wages at all, and it requires no great stretch of imagination to picture what their condition would be. These things will certainly happen to the country sooner or later, and perhaps sooner than many people think if provision is not made beforehand."

He then quotes a manifesto signed by twenty-six of the leading corn merchants of the United Kingdom, which concludes thus:

"We feel that the country ought to know that in the opinion of corn merchants it must, in the event of such a war, prepare to see wheat, and consequently bread, at what would be to the poor famine prices."

War would entail not only famine prices for bread, but an immediate cessation of employment in many industries. So that "at the very outbreak of the war our government would, in addition to their other anxieties, be brought face to face with the problem of feeding from fifteen to twenty millions of the poorer classes in these islands. What preparations have been made for doing so? And what will be the consequences if they fail to do so? The answer to the first question is, None! and the answer to the second question is, Revolution, anarchy! the depredations of an angry and starving mob, which no power of government will be able to resist if they have not the means of feeding them; and, finally, an ignominious and ruinous peace, the surrender of our navy, and a crushing war indemnity,—in short, the end of English history."

It is difficult to resist the conclusion which *Blackwood* draws from these facts when it says:

"Is it not reasonable to ask, then, that the rulers of this fortress, with its garrison of forty-one millions, spending over sixty millions a year on warlike preparations for its defense, should spend a few more millions, if necessary, and take adequate steps to insure that the fortress shall not be reduced by starvation three or four months after war is declared?"

The Price of Wheat in Time of War.

Mr. W. Bridges Webb, a leading grain merchant, contributes to the *Contemporary Review* an article on the price of corn (wheat) in time of war which comes to the same conclusion. He says:

"With a population grown to more than 41,000,000, this country produces less than 6,000,000 quarters of millable wheat, and is forced to buy from America, Russia, Argen-

tina, etc., 24,500,000 quarters to meet our requirements. It has gradually come to pass that the United Kingdom receives about three-fourths of its whole food-supply from abroad, while the foreign proportion of our breadstuffs is represented by something very close to five-sixths of our consumption."

This being so, Mr. Webb concludes:

"A royal commission should be appointed to collect facts, figures, and authoritative opinions, so that their report would give the necessary information to Parliament. The public would then be able to arrive at some conclusion that would help the legislature to handle the matter in a way befitting the vital national and imperial interests which affect so intimately the well-being of the people."

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

OUR British friends are favored with a frank, clear, and straightforward exposition of the Monroe Doctrine, by Captain Mahan, in the *National Review* for February.

The historical development of the doctrine, and especially the facts related directly to its origin and formulation, are reviewed with much care, and the article concludes with a vigorous assertion of the national purpose in this country "to withstand the beginnings of action which might lead to European intervention in the internal concerns of an American state, or render it contributive in any way to the European system, a makeweight in the balance of power, a pawn in the game of European international politics; for such a condition, if realized, brings any European contest to this side of the Atlantic; and the neighborhood of disputes, as of fire, is perilous."

In explanation of the sensitiveness of American public opinion on this subject Captain Mahan says:

"It is remembered that intervention was contemplated in our own deadly intestine struggle because of the effect upon European interests, although only economic; for we were embarrassed by no political dependence or relation to Europe. Public sentiment intends that such a danger to the American continents, the recurrence of which can only be obviated by the predominant force and purpose of this country, shall not be indefinitely increased by acquiescing in European governments acquiring relations which may serve as occasions for interference, trenching upon the independence of action or integrity of territory of American states.

"It is evident that for a nation to owe money

to a foreign government, directly or by guarantee, is a very different political condition to that of indebtedness contracted in open market to individuals. It is evident that a disputed boundary is a perennial source of danger; and of implicit threat where there is a great difference of strength. Such an ember might blow into a flame at a moment otherwise unpropitious for the United States to assert its traditional policy; just as the long-standing Transvaal trouble might very conceivably have been precipitated into war at a moment most inconvenient to Great Britain. As it was, her course in other quarters is believed to have been embarrassed by the South African War. It is the part of wisdom, and substantially of justice, to exclude such occasions of offense, or to insist upon timely settlement where they exist.

NO SHIRKING OF RESPONSIBILITY.

"Granting the military effect of the isthmus and Cuba upon the United States, it is clear that for them to contract relations of dependence upon a European power involves the United States at once in a net of secondary relations to the same power potential of very serious result. Why acquiesce in such? But the fundamental relations of international law, essential to the

intercourse of nations, are not hereby contradicted. National rights, which are summed up in the word independence, have as their correlative national responsibility. Not to invade the rights of an American state is to the United States an obligation with the force of law; to permit no European state to infringe them is a matter of policy; but as she will not acquiesce in any assault upon their independence or territorial integrity, so she will not countenance by her support any shirking of their international responsibility. Neither will she undertake to compel them to observe their international obligations to others than herself. To do so, which has been by some most inconsequently argued a necessary corollary of the Monroe Doctrine, would encroach on the very independence which that political dogma defends; for to assume the responsibility which derives from independence, and can only be transferred by its surrender, would be to assert a *quasi* suzerainty.

"The United States is inevitably the preponderant American power; but she does not aspire to be paramount. She does not find the true complement of the Monroe Doctrine in an undefined control over American states, exercised by her, and denied to Europe. Its correlative, as forcibly urged by John Quincy Adams at the



LET IT BE WRITTEN SO IT CAN BE READ.—From the Herald (New York).



A NARROW ESCAPE.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

time of formulation, and since explicitly adopted by the national consciousness, is abstention from interference in questions territorially European. These, I conceive, embrace not only Europe proper, but regions also in which propinquity and continuity, or long recognized occupancy, give Europe a priority of interest and influence, resembling that which the Monroe policy asserts for America in the American continents and islands. In my apprehension, Europe, construed by the doctrine, would include Africa, with the Levant and India, and the countries between them. It would not include Japan, China, nor the Pacific generally. The United States might for very excellent reasons abstain from action in any of these last-named quarters, in any particular instance; but the deterrent cause would not be the Monroe Doctrine in legitimate deduction."

CONCERNING THE MASTERY OF THE SEA.

THE conditions underlying the mastery of the sea, which is coveted by England, Germany, and the United States, are discussed, from the German point of view, by Chief Naval Construction Councilor Schwarz in a recent issue of *Die Woche*, apropos of the Morgan shipping trust. This combination, Herr Schwarz says, has materially changed the status of the English and German carrying trade, placing the United States at once at the head of both the passenger and the freight traffic of the entire

sea. The companies merged in the trust, however, own ships of average speed only; the Cunard Line, that remains under British control, leads with the *Campania* and the *Lucania*, which have a record of twenty-two knots, while Germany still holds the blue ribbon for the fastest ocean greyhound; and the new *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, which will be put to sea this spring, will probably even surpass in speed the German steamers that now hold the record.

DANGERS TO ENGLAND ARISING FROM THE TRUST.

When the White Star Line was absorbed by the trust, Great Britain not only lost its most important medium of transatlantic passenger traffic, but was also in danger of being deprived of the use of the fast steamers of this line as auxiliary cruisers in the event of a war. The White Star Line is one of the few British transportation companies that on principle man their ships only with British crews, which naturally form valuable recruits for the English navy, under the name of the Royal Naval Reserve; whereas the crews of the English freight steamers and sailing vessels consist, with the exception of the officers, largely of foreign seamen, as Scandinavians, Germans, Dutch, and colored men, who ask less pay and are content with simpler fare.

As the fast ocean steamers are valuable training-schools for machinists and stokers, the writer says that English supremacy on the sea is endangered if England loses control of those

steamers, being thereby deprived of their well-trained crews as reserves for her navy. This consideration, he thinks, has led the government to enter into agreements both with the Cunard Line and the Morgan trust. The first agreement is, according to the president of the line, a mere business transaction, in conformity with which the company agrees to take certain measures for which it is to be remunerated by the government. But, says the writer, "this remuneration is so unusually high that it surpasses even the French ship subsidies and premiums, a sign that the ships of the Cunard Line also were in danger of being absorbed by the trust."

ENGLAND VERSUS THE UNITED STATES.

The question arises whether England may not finally have to give way to the energetic competition of the United States. Although the English navy is still unsurpassed as regards the number and size of its battleships and cruisers, and has, in addition, the most complete coaling stations, docks, and repair shops, yet its weak point lies in the manning of its navy.

As soon as Great Britain fails to train in its merchant marine a sufficient number of sailors and stokers, it will not be able to man its navy adequately without having recourse to general recruiting. "Naval warfare requires not only money, but also a well-drilled, experienced, and patriotic crew. The experience, coolness, and decision of the crew constitute a chief factor of victory in modern battleships, which are increasingly difficult to command, with their complicated machinery, and the noise and percussion of their great guns. Campaigns on land may be carried on with the aid of hirelings, but naval warfare requires steeled and proved seamen, who serve, not for pay, but from a sense of duty. Hence, Great Britain will be obliged to take further important measures in order to be able to retain definitely her supremacy on the sea."

THE KINGS OF THE RAND.

IN the *Quarterly Review* for January there is published an article entitled "The Game of Speculation," which is a scathing exposure of the methods in which men are swindled on the London Stock Exchange, or in its related "bucket-shops." There are many interesting and suggestive facts and figures as to the extent to which worthless stocks were run up to high prices only to drop heavily in a few weeks. Sixteen of the leading West African gold mines, with a nominal capital of little over three millions, were inflated in a few weeks to twenty millions, and then dropped suddenly to seven

millions. Many West African mines realized scarcely as many shillings as they stood in pounds little more than a year ago. The writer passes in review many of the gambling stocks, and devotes several pages to the South African market. In South Africa, the lowest market quotations in 1901 represented an average falling off of 50 per cent. of the former nominal values. Prices were run up at the beginning of 1902, but after peace was declared they fell again so heavily that the total decline in five months in the market value of South African mining shares amounted to £50,000,000 sterling (\$250,000,000).

THE RAND COMPANIES.

The writer then gives the following information as to the companies which own the Rand:

"There are about 350 principal South African and Rhodesian companies, with a total capital of £124,598,000. Of these, 301 are mining, 36 are investment, and 13 are land and estate companies. Many of them have their head offices in Johannesburg, and therefore are not amenable to English law. Of the total number, three-tenths have never declared a dividend, six-tenths have paid nothing for three or more years, and the remaining tenth have paid, for the most part, 5 or 6 per cent., or have declared 'rights' in the form of new shares. Nearly all of them require additional capital before fully resuming work, or for purposes of future development. Out of the 350 companies, only 21 have a nominal capital of less than £100,000, while 102 range from that sum to £250,000 each, 186 from that to £500,000, and 56 from £500,000 to £1,000,000. There are 25 having more than £1,000,000, including such plethoric companies as De Beers, with £9,750,000; Randfontein, £3,000,000; Robinson Gold, £2,750,000; Simmer and Jack, £3,000,000; the Consolidated Gold Fields, £3,850,000; Henderson's, £2,000,000; 'Johnnies,' £2,750,000; Oceana Consolidated, £1,500,000; Robinson Bank, £3,000,000; Chartered, £6,250,000; Chartered Trust and Agency, £2,500,000; and Modderfontein, £1,200,000.

"There are ten or twelve controlling firms or companies in the South African market. Some of them have extensive joint interests in certain properties, so that, in their combined capacity, they can at any moment make or mar the market. Complete lists of their numerous enterprises were given in the *Citizen* of June 7, 1902, and in the *Statist* of July 5, 1902. Upwards of 200 companies are thus comprised, with an issued capital of £98,000,000. This vast sum was swollen by the high premiums at which the shares were usually placed on the market, or during the craze of 1895."

THE CAREER OF THE TOBACCO TRUST.

THERE is a good account of the extraordinary growth of the tobacco trust by Earl Mayo in the March *Frank Leslie's*. Mr. Mayo thinks the achievement of Mr. James B. Duke, the head of the tobacco combination, in bringing the bitterly antagonistic competing firms together was in some respects even greater than Mr. John D. Rockefeller's in founding the Standard Oil Company, because the latter had the advantage of starting his plans in the infancy of the industry. No trust except the Standard Oil Company exercises so complete a monopoly as the tobacco combination. Like Mr. Rockefeller, Mr. Duke's start toward his present imperial position in the tobacco trade was made from very small beginnings, and the Duke firm's entire output could be carried in a handbag in 1865.

After the Philadelphia Centennial, the growth of cigarette manufacture in the United States was very rapid, and by 1890 had grown to a product of two billion a year. W. Duke & Sons were one of the largest manufacturers, but there were half a dozen struggling neck-and-neck for supremacy. The most lavish advertising and premium schemes were used. "At one time the competition had reached a point where a coupon, a colored reproduction of a photograph, and a card bearing a representation of a flag, done in colors, were all given away with a five-cent box of cigarettes." Notwithstanding the bitterness of the antagonism, Mr. Duke succeeded, in 1890, in forming the American Tobacco Company, and brought into it all the large rival concerns. From cigarette manufacture, Mr. Duke went on to capture, by the hardest fighting imaginable, the pipe-tobacco and chewing-tobacco markets. In establishing the fame of the "Battle-Ax" brand of chewing tobacco, \$4,000,000 was sunk, but since then \$12,000,000 has been earned.

To-day, there are two great manufacturing corporations, the American Tobacco Company and the Continental Tobacco Company, the first making cigarettes, the second plug tobacco, and dividing the pipe tobacco between them. A subsidiary company, the American Snuff Company, makes 15,000,000 pounds of snuff a year.

THE TOBACCO WAR IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Mr. Mayo describes the Homeric battle in England of the American Tobacco interests, led by Mr. Duke, against the Imperial Tobacco Company, composed of the leading British houses, hastily organized to repel the American invader. This fight culminated in Mr. Duke's offer to give to the retail dealers *all* the profits of his company for four years and \$4,000,000 be-

sides, without even exacting that the dealers should refuse to handle his rival's wares. Immediately after this curious proposal, the American and British interests "got together," and there was much jubilation in England over the defeat of the invader; but Mr. Mayo says that the net result of the agreement was that the Imperial Company surrendered the entire foreign market to the Americans and gave them an interest in its own business as the price of peace.

THE RETAIL TRADE.

Finally, the great combinations under Mr. Duke had got practical mastery of the manufacture of tobacco in all its forms. Now people are asking themselves if the trust is determined to be its own retailer as well, because an ominous new concern, the United Cigar Stores Company, has appeared on the horizon. No less than \$500,000,000 worth of tobacco is sold every year, a trade prize worth working for. The Cigar Stores Company has started four hundred stores in the best locations, and is constantly expanding. The officials say they have nothing to do with the tobacco trust, and that they are simply trying to bring the business of cigar and tobacco selling to an orderly and economical basis. But the retail dealers are sure the trust is trying to swallow them through this new mouth. Where the retail dealer will not be bought out, one is apt to see a magnificent shop of the United Cigar Stores Company opened up next door. If sumptuous fittings do not capture the trade, the big store may sell some favorite brand of fifteen-cent cigar for six cents apiece, and these tactics, of course, will soon see the small dealer's end.

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR.

TO the second January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. de Fonvielle contributes an interesting paper on the disasters which have happened to various aeronauts, and also on the progress which has nevertheless been made concerning the conquest of the air. He explains at great length the difficulties which confront any one who tries to photograph objects on the earth from any considerable height in a balloon. This is a matter which has long occupied the attention of the French ministry of war, and it is easy to see how essential it might be, in the course of a campaign, to obtain a negative which would be sufficiently large to enable men, horses, guns, etc., to be clearly discerned, without relying upon any subsequent enlargement, for which there would be probably no time. Apparently, the clouds floating below a

balloon always intervene in the most annoying manner, and insist upon being photographed in place of the more interesting surface of the earth.

AN ENTHUSIASTIC AÉRONAUT.

M. de Fonvielle says that he has made so many ascents that he forgets the exact number; but never, except perhaps on one occasion, did he attempt to decide, before starting, on the place where he intended to alight. Indeed, as he says himself, as a rule, all that he asked of Æolus was not to drop him down into the empire of Neptune! Both the experiments and the tragic fate of Severo naturally interested him profoundly. His enthusiasm for the magnificent sights which are unrolled before the aéronaut in the upper regions of the air reaches quite a lyrical pitch, and we even find him regretting that Victor Hugo never went up in a balloon. Certainly, this idea suggests a new method of furnishing our popular novelists with some amount of imagination.

To M. de Fonvielle, aériel navigation has become a physical necessity; and he finds that if he goes for some time without his air cure, as he calls it, he becomes languid and nervous. He greatly regrets that the attention of French inventors has been so exclusively concentrated on the construction of steerable balloons, to the exclusion of artistic, scientific, and sporting aéronautics; and he looks forward to the time when the establishment of a really scientific meteorology will enable us to make use of the wind, and to travel by its aid. This, he says, would be preferable to inventing machines which are designed to overcome the wind's powerful resistance. Nevertheless, he pays a warm tribute to M. Santos-Dumont, and considers that the world owes him a larger debt of gratitude than it is now willing to admit.

TWO WAYS OF BORING THE ALPS.

THE longest tunnel in the world, the St. Simplon tunnel, is the subject of an admirable sketch by Mr. H. G. Archer in *Cassell's Magazine*. When open for traffic in May, 1904, it will be $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, the St. Gothard being $9\frac{3}{4}$, the Mont Cenis $7\frac{3}{4}$, and the Arlberg $6\frac{1}{4}$. Perhaps the most pleasing feature in the sketch is the witness it bears to the vastly greater care taken of the workmen in this than in any of the preceding bores. Strange to say, one of the most formidable dangers to the health of the navvies is the intense heat of the tunnel, the temperature having risen as high as 123 degrees Fahrenheit. A valuable illustration of the progress of civilization is supplied by the contrast

which Mr. Archer draws between the arrangements at St. Simplon and the arrangements at St. Gothard:

THE INHUMAN.

"At the latter, the workmen were miserably housed in wretched wooden shanties. Professors described the tunnel itself as a veritable hell, continuous labor in its pestiferous atmosphere being almost certain death for the young. Owing to the air, vitiated by the perpetual explosion of dynamite, the smoke from hundreds of reeking oil lamps, and the exhalations from the bodies of men and horses, being insufficiently renewed, together with the entire absence of sanitary appliances, 80 per cent. of the miners suffered from a form of trichinosis consisting of microscopic worms in the intestines. During the eight years the tunnel took to make, no less than four hundred lives were lost, either from 'tunnel worm' or from pneumonia, the latter originating through the sudden change from the hot galleries to the cool Alpine atmosphere outside, while another two hundred were killed or maimed by explosions and passing trucks.

THE HUMANE.

"Things were managed better at the Arlberg, but it has been reserved for the Simplon direct-orate to inaugurate, with their refinements, a new era in the history of social science. To obviate the risk of pneumonia, large dressing-halls are provided at either entrance. On emerging from the galleries, the men are compelled to enter these halls, which are ready-heated for their reception at the temperature which they have just left, and to stay therein for half an hour while the temperature is gradually cooled down to that prevailing outside. The men are conveyed into and out of the tunnel in train-loads, and the space between the tunnel exits and the platforms where they alight is roofed over and boarded in, so that no chill may be contracted on this short portion of the journey. The halls are equipped with baths, hot and cold douches, etc., and here the men take off their mining clothes, which are at once hung up in heated rooms to dry, ready for the next day's work. Adjacent are canteens, under official control, and selling nothing but the best food and liquor at nominal prices. Excellent hospitals have been provided, in case of accident or illness; and, lastly, in order to minimize the risks of accident inside the tunnel, the trains are run by time-table and protected by signals, while the narrow-gauge contractors' track is laid at one side, thus leaving plenty of room for pedestrians."

"MOTORING" AT NINETY MILES AN HOUR.

IN the *Badminton Magazine*, Charles Jarrott describes how he won the Ardennes automobile race. To do this he had to cover 321 miles in 353 minutes, along fifty-three miles of road literally filled with ninety other cars. The danger was very great, from the high speed at which the cars traveled, and most of all from the dust raised all along the route. Mr. Jarrott says:

"In the open stretches, where the wind was able to take effect on the dust, the road was clearer; but in the pine forests, where the dust was unable to escape, the air was more like a November fog in London than anything else I can describe. It was of no use slackening speed, however, and on and on we went, with no other means of knowing we were on the road than an occasional glimpse of the tree-tops on either side.

"The trouble of passing other cars was a very apparent one. The hooter was quite useless, human lungs soon gave way, and the only thing left to do was to watch for a favorable piece of road, take the opportunity, and rush by. That troubles were being experienced by other competitors we could see, as evidenced by the state of their cars, many of which were completely smashed up on various parts of the course."

Mr. Jarrott made two stoppages to replenish his supply of petrol and water, and on one of these occasions lost seven minutes. Starting No. 32, there being a two-minutes' interval between the starting of each car, he nevertheless finished first of all the competitors on his 70 horse-power Panhard. His most exciting experience he describes as follows:

"It was soon after this that I caught up Mr. W. K. Vanderbilt, Jr., and then came some of the best racing I have ever enjoyed. With the two cars going wonderfully well, both of us taking all legitimate (and a good many illegitimate) risks, neither of us able to gain an advantage over the other, for over ninety kilometers we ran wheel and wheel; but I eventually succeeded in getting by at the corner at Longlier."

His sensations during the race are also given:

"Many times have I been asked the question as to what incidents I met with during this race. Beyond the one or two I have mentioned, it is quite impossible to remember any. If one were able to recall at the moment each episode as it occurred, it would probably in itself make a complete little story. The passing in the dust of each individual car is an exciting business in itself; but, having once got by, it is lost to memory, the one idea being to keep on faster and faster till the next car is passed, and so on until the end."

HOW THE TROLLEY COMPETES WITH THE STEAM RAILROAD.

IT is one of those many facts "not generally known" that the number of passengers carried on American steam railroads is less to-day by over twelve millions than it was seven years ago, notwithstanding the remarkable prosperity of the country. An explanation of this apparent paradox is supplied by the rapid growth of the trolley. At least, that is the hypothesis adopted by Mr. Samuel E. Moffett, writing in *McClure's* for March, and the data embodied in his article seem to justify his position.

Commenting on the falling off in steam passenger traffic and on the accompanying increase in the average passenger haul, Mr. Moffett says:

"Of course, people are not really traveling less frequently than they used to, nor are they journeying longer distances. More passengers by hundreds of millions are traveling than ever before, but the steam railroads are not carrying the increase. The growth in the length of the average passenger haul on those roads means that they are steadily losing the short-haul business, which a younger and more vigorous rival is claiming for its own.

A RIVAL OF THE LOCOMOTIVE.

"Inch by inch, the field is contested, and slowly, sullenly, the locomotive is giving way before the insistent trolley. A dozen years ago, it was only the car horse and the cable in the towns that were threatened by electric traction. Then the trolley poked an inquiring tentacle over the city limits into the suburbs. The results were satisfactory, and swiftly the electric lines flung their spider filaments from town to town, until now great sections of the country are cobwebbed with them. The trolley map of eastern Massachusetts looks as complete as the steam-railroad map. If you have a little time to spare, you can go on an electric car to almost any part of southern New England that you could reach by a locomotive, and to a good many parts that you could not.

"In Massachusetts, last year, four times as many passengers were carried by electric cars as on the steam roads. Of course, that was due chiefly to the dense city traffic; but still, the city street-car systems were pretty complete seven years ago, and the trolley passenger business has doubled since that time, while the steam passenger business has actually declined. The electric mileage of the State has increased from 9 to 18 per cent. every year since 1894. In 1901, the increase was 242.7 miles. In the same year, the length of steam lines was reduced by 1.39 miles.

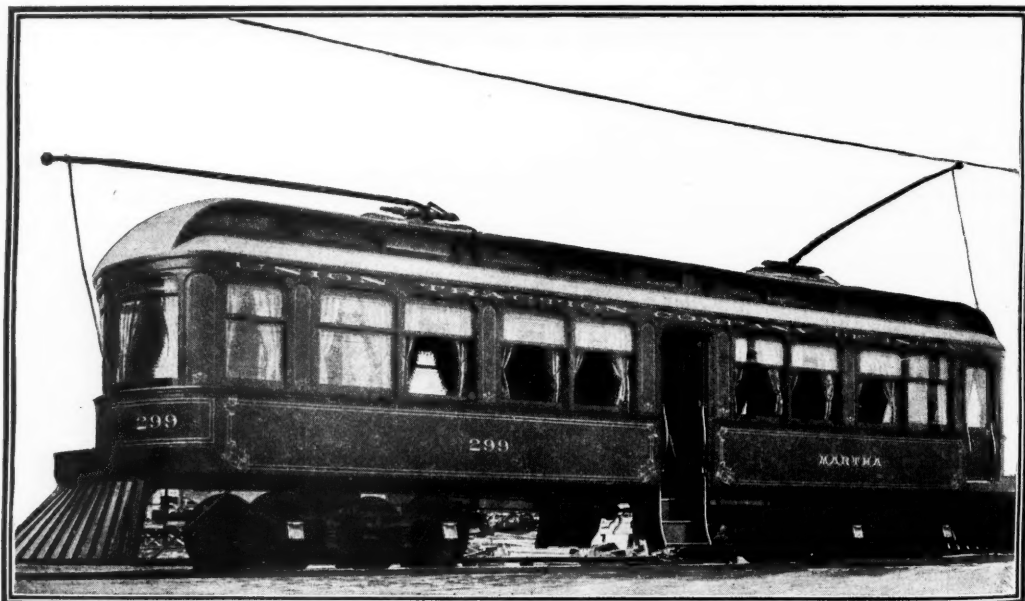
"In Connecticut, where there are no very large cities to inflate the trolley figures, and where one great steam-railroad system is supposed to be the feudal proprietor of the entire State, there were 20 per cent. more passengers on the electric lines in 1900 than on the steam roads. And that is the way the tide is running everywhere.

"In its early development, the trolley had four advantages. It could run separate cars at frequent intervals; it could take on and let off passengers anywhere along the road; it could take people near their homes and offices, and it could pay a profit at nominal fares. Per contra, it had the disadvantage of less than railroad speed, not because there was any difficulty in making an electric car that could go as fast as a locomotive, but because the trolley track, as a rule, was laid on the surface of the public highway, crossed all intersecting roads at grade, and was a thoroughfare for vehicles, pedestrians, and domestic fauna. These characteristics still prevail over most of the electric mileage of the country, but as the trolley lines have grown longer and the need for sustained high speed has become more urgent, the tendency has developed to build the roads on private rights of way and to operate them by steam-railroad methods.

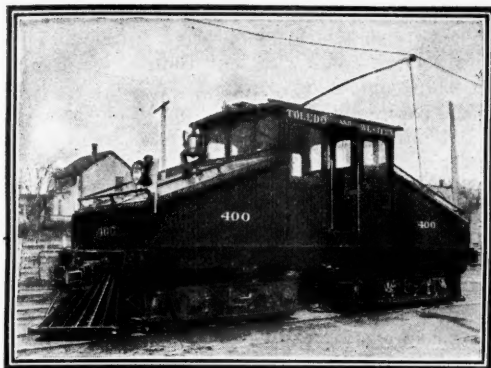
MODERN OPERATING METHODS AND HIGH SPEED.

"Go, for instance, to Indianapolis, and take a spin of fifty-three miles to Muncie over the lines

of the Union Traction Company. You do not have to calculate your train time by a nautical almanac. You can go at any hour of the day. You will travel in a car as large and heavy as a standard railway coach, over a track built almost entirely upon the company's own ground. It will take you two hours to make the run on an express car, or two and a quarter on a car making all stops, but of that twenty-five minutes are lost within the city limits of Indianapolis, where the through cars have to accommodate themselves to urban traffic on the local tracks. The fastest limited express train on the parallel line of the Big Four covers the same distance in one hour and thirteen minutes. The local trains take ten minutes less than two hours. The electric cars cover part of their schedule at the rate of a mile a minute. Each car is driven by motors of three hundred horse-power. Imagine three hundred horses galloping in a procession a quarter of a mile long, with a street car trailing along behind, and you can begin to realize a little of the meaning of the electric revolution. To keep this power under control, there are air brakes, with independent motor compressors. The track over which you skim on this Indiana road is as well graded, as solidly constructed, and as thoroughly ballasted as the Pennsylvania Railway. Instead of a 'starter' to turn the cars loose and leave their subsequent fate to Providence, there is a regular train-dispatcher, who keeps watch of every one as carefully as if it



PARLOR AND SLEEPING CAR, UNION TRACTION COMPANY OF INDIANA.



ELECTRIC ENGINE, TOLEDO & WESTERN RAILROAD.

(Thirty-five tons; built in company's shops.)

were the Empire State Express. Only, instead of sending his orders by telegraph, he uses the telephone. At every switch, the wires come down to a box, from which instantaneous connection can be made with an instrument at the motorman's elbow. There is no ringing up Central. The train-dispatcher is always at the other end of the wire, and a simple 'Hello' will get his attention.

"This is a fair example of the modern inter-urban roads in actual operation to-day. On the Buffalo & Lockport line, the present cars go, in places, at the rate of fifty miles an hour, with an average outside of Buffalo of thirty-three miles, but the General Electric Company has submitted estimates for machinery to develop a schedule speed of seventy-five miles an hour. If that rate could be kept up, it would carry you from New York to San Francisco in less than two days. If a track were laid around the world on the eighty-fifth parallel of latitude, a car going at that velocity from east to west would keep up with the earth's rotation and beat Joshua's miracle by holding the sun in one place all summer."

THE TROLLEY AS A FREIGHT-CARRIER.

The development of the trolley freight business is also outlined in Mr. Moffett's article. The managers of many of the trolley lines that have made a specialty of carrying freight seem to have made it a point to look after the interests of patrons in every way possible.

"The electric freight service is as flexible as an elephant's trunk, and as adept in picking up little things. It grows rich off the crumbs of business that a steam road would despise. It is always ready to go out of its way to accommodate the special needs of its patrons. The lemon-growers along the Los Angeles Pacific Railroad,

which runs its trolley freight, passenger, and mail cars between Los Angeles and Santa Monica, found that their fruit was suffering from the roughness of the trip. They stated their grievance, and the result is the 'Lemon-Growers' Express,' which carries the delicate spheroids to market as gently as in a baby's cradle."

Another instance:

"There is no troublesome red tape about the trolley freight system. The Cleveland & Eastern Railway, for instance, handles milk on its forty-mile line at a uniform rate of two cents per gallon for any distance. The farmer buys packages of tickets at that rate. When his milk is shipped it pays its fare like a passenger. A twenty-cent ticket is handed to the conductor for each ten-gallon can. The conductor punches the tickets, and passes them on to the office. The company returns the empty cans free."

THE SOUTH AND THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

PRIOR to the Civil War, Southern Democrats had a preponderating influence in the leadership of the Democratic party, and through that leadership in the direction of national policy at Washington. That influence has largely disappeared, but the fact that the South, with the border States, still sends one-third of the delegates to every national Democratic convention has caused more than one Southern Democrat of the present day to raise the question, Why does not the South regain her old-time supremacy in the party councils? As a sort of exhortation to the leaders of the Democratic party in the South to unite on a platform of principles likely to command the assent of Northern Democrats, Mr. Thomas F. Ryan contributes to the *North American Review* for February a noteworthy article on "The Political Opportunity of the South."

That this appeal is really addressed to the gold-standard element of the party is made evident in the following extracts:

"In determining what shall be the policy of the next Democratic National Convention, the action of the South will be almost decisive, if the conservative men of that section exert themselves to resume their old influence in the party. It is high time that the Democrats of the South realized that they have nothing to gain by coquetting with Populism, or by following vagaries which have excited the distrust of conservative and thoughtful men everywhere, and which, during the last six years, have too often united against the Democratic party all who had a dollar to lose by the debasement of the metallic standard, or whose success was to be sought by the

exertion of their hands or brains. The Democratic party won its repeated victories from 1800 to 1860, and its victories of 1876, 1884, and 1892, because it advocated those conservative policies which lay at the foundation of party doctrine in the time of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, and which inspired in the country the conviction that a Democratic administration meant strict adherence to the Constitution, careful economy in public expenditures, and the administration of laws regarding taxation and privilege which would conform most nearly to the theory of equal rights and privileges for all and the greatest good to the greatest number. Among those policies, a return to which at the present time would bring strength to the party, these may be enumerated:

"1. A moderate tariff for revenue, without prejudice to domestic industries.

"2. A sound currency.

"3. Moderation in public expenditures.

"4. The restriction of the federal government to its legitimate functions, and opposition to the further extension of its powers over the acts and industries of the people of the States."

On the question of the tariff, Mr. Ryan has no more radical a proposition to make than this,—that the Democratic policy "should have due regard to the reasonable needs of American manufactures, but should not prostitute Congress to the contemptible part of acting as the pliant tool of special interests." The question of absolute free trade, in this writer's opinion, may be eliminated. No Democratic Congress, he says, will ever "wipe out protection, or reduce it upon highly finished products below a reasonable protective point."

DEMOCRATS AS DEFENDERS OF THE GOLD STANDARD.

What Mr. Ryan has to say about the currency is more interesting, because more at variance with recent official Democratic utterances. He begins with a rehearsal of the party's record on the money question while in power:

"The Democratic party was the first champion of the gold standard in the United States, and its leaders have been among the foremost in advocating an intelligent reform of the bank-note currency. When the gold standard first became law in 1834, it was largely by the efforts of Thomas Benton and Andrew Jackson, both Southern men, one of whom earned the epithet of 'Old Bullion' by his firm devotion to that standard. At a later date, after the country had been plunged into the abyss of depreciated paper, against the advice of the conservative bankers of New York, and when faltering steps were being taken to restore gold payments, it

was Southern men, like Bayard of Delaware, Hill of Georgia, Lamar of Mississippi, and Garland of Arkansas, who lent their votes in critical emergencies in support of the return to specie payments and sound money and in saving the Republican party in Congress from its own worst elements.

"It is needless to recite the history of the resolute fight made by the last two Democratic administrations for the gold standard and against the debasement of the currency. While Democratic Secretaries of the Treasury, like Daniel Manning, Charles S. Fairchild, and John G. Carlisle, were struggling to counteract the effects of Republican silver legislation, Republican Presidents, Secretaries, and Senators were denouncing their action and sending roving bimetallic commissions abroad to demonstrate their desire to make new concessions to the enemies of the gold standard. It is the testimony of John Sherman that the silver law of 1890 was passed because a Republican President could not be counted upon to veto a free-coinage bill. How different the record of the Democratic President who followed, who was willing to sacrifice his party, if need be, to the preservation of the gold standard and the maintenance of the national honor! Both Presidents followed the historic precedents of their parties,—the Republican, in looking to government interference with monetary laws as a means of creating value; the Democrat, in looking to the bullion in the coin as the test of value, which law might recognize but could not alter."

As a practical currency measure of urgent importance, especially to the agricultural regions of the South, Mr. Ryan cites the bank-note reform scheme advocated by Secretary Carlisle and by his Republican successors, but not yet enacted into law by a Republican Congress.

ADMINISTRATIVE ECONOMY.

Another Democratic virtue of the past in which Mr. Ryan glories is that of frugality in the conduct of the Government:

"Moderation in public expenditures has been one of the historic policies of the Democratic party. If there has ever been a tendency to carry economy too far, it has been more than counterbalanced by Republican extravagance, and is an error which is too rare in the administration of modern governments. The ordinary expenditures of the United States have increased \$260,226,935 or \$4.63 *per capita* for 1885, to \$487,713,791 or \$6.39 *per capita* for 1900, and \$509,967,353 or \$6.56 *per capita* for 1901. A part of this great increase has, no doubt, been occasioned by the growth of the

country and by the new classes of functions imposed by Republican legislation upon the federal government; but the question whether these new expenditures are justified goes deeper than the mere salary roll of a new bureau, and touches the vital Democratic doctrine whether these new functions ought in any case to be imposed upon the federal government. Upon this issue of economy and the strict scrutiny of public expenditures, Mr. Tilden achieved his victory of 1876, and Mr. Cleveland commended himself to the confidence of the Democrats of New York and the nation. The South, which profits only in a limited degree by the wealth arising from new inventions, railway extension, and the economies in production obtained by improved industrial management, is less disposed, perhaps, than the North to witness with patience the lavishing of the money raised by taxation upon objects of doubtful utility or beyond the legitimate scope of federal action."

AGAINST FEDERAL INTERFERENCE.

The rest of the article is mainly a protest against the undue extension of the powers of the federal government which is threatened by the anti-trust legislation now before Congress. Mr. Ryan dwells upon "the vital Democratic principle," that there shall be the least possible interference by the state with private rights, and that the citizen shall be free under equal laws to seek and welcome opportunity whenever it is found.

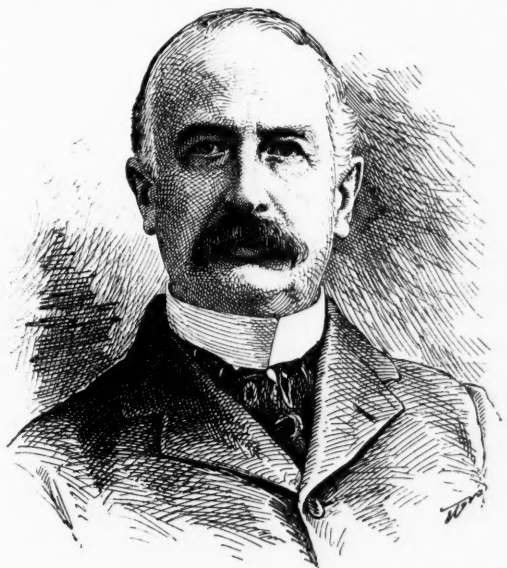
"The fundamental policy of the Democratic party is the policy of industrial freedom. This policy, heretofore respected by all parties within our own broad limits, if not in our relations with other peoples, is now threatened by the application of the nostrums which handicap the industry of Germany, France, and Russia. The ball and chain of government interference with manufactures, with the Bourse, and with exchanges, which they are compelled to drag along in the unequal race with America, it is now proposed that we shall fasten upon our own free limbs, in order that our industries may not reduce the cost of their products to too low a point, and may not reap too rich a reward for their economy and efficiency!

"Against these new follies of budding state-socialism, the Democratic party of the Union can afford to array itself with unflinching faith, and in such a movement the Democrats of the South should be the leaders. Such an attitude would be in harmony with the Democratic faith of the past; it would be in harmony with the best aspirations of the Democracy for the future. Upon the subject of the tariff, freedom from

undue favors to special interests; upon the currency, freedom for the use of credit in all forms which are useful to industry, without any further regulation than public safety and convenience require; upon public expenditures, freedom from waste and excessive taxation; upon the regulation of corporations, freedom from special favors and from any interference except such as is necessary to the maintenance of equal opportunity for all under equal laws,—these doctrines, adapted to present conditions, are in harmony in each case with the fundamental teachings of the fathers of Democracy; they are in harmony with the interests of the South; and, what is more, they are in harmony with the true interests of the nation, and the continuance of its progress in the paths marked out by the founders of the Republic and the framers of the Constitution."

A CORPORATION LAWYER OF THE NEW TYPE.

THE specialist in corporation law is now a force to be reckoned with at the bar of most of our great cities; but it is not so many years since the type was evolved. Indeed, there are men still on the sunny side of fifty who have seen the entire development of this particular



MR. JAMES B. DILL.

branch of legal practice since they left the law school, and this remark applies to the most prominent and best paid of all the latter-day corporation lawyers,—Mr. James B. Dill, of New

York. In the March *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. Dill is sketched by Mr. William J. Boies in the series of "Captains of Industry," and assuredly the title fits a man who has played so important a part in the organization of modern industrial enterprises.

The newspapers have told about the big fees that Mr. Dill receives from corporations, but they have usually neglected to tell how he paved the way for this success twenty years ago, soon after entering the profession, when by hard work he mastered the intricacies of corporation law and made himself an authority that the biggest of the corporations have been eager to consult in perfecting their organization. The man who made himself so useful in putting these concerns on their feet was found equally valuable in later years when other difficulties had to be faced by these same corporations. He has always proved to be the man for the emergency, and has earned a reputation, Mr. Boies says, for "hustle, grit, and shrewdness."

THE TELEPHONE AND THE AUTOMOBILE AS AUXILIARIES.

One incident related by Mr. Boies throws light on the kind of "hustle" that characterizes Mr. Dill's methods. A banking syndicate three hundred miles from New York suddenly found itself in a legal predicament that required immediate action. It was 9 o'clock at night, and it was decided to call up Mr. Dill on the long-distance telephone and ask for an opinion. Mr. Dill was at his East Orange, N. J., home.

This is what the bank people said :

"We want your opinion on such a provision [naming it] of the corporation law. We are divided here as to what ought to be done, but must reach a decision and act on it by nine o'clock to-morrow morning. I will briefly give you the facts over the telephone, and you must send us a written opinion, stating whether, in the first place, what we propose to do is covered by the provision in question ; second, if we do this, whether we can be enjoined ; and, third, if we are enjoined, whether we will be beaten in the fight."

"You shall have it. My man will be at your office with the document at nine o'clock to-morrow morning. Don't give yourself any anxiety, and don't ask for any more miracles to-night."

"But how will you do it ? It is nearly ten o'clock now."

"If I take time in discussing 'how,' you will not obtain the result. Give me the facts."

Mr. Dill got them, and said "Good-bye."

With that, the long-distance circuit was closed, and the local telephone came into use. A gen-

tleman who was at Mr. Dill's house at the time gives this account of what happened :

"The manager of the automobile station was hurriedly called up, and Mr. Dill said, quickly : 'Send up my two machines with a man on each, and see that they are supplied with plenty of gasolene for long-distance work.'

"In two minutes the familiar 'chug, chug' was heard under Mr. Dill's library windows. One machine procured a stenographer, and the other conveyed a brief message to a clerk, stating that he must get ready to leave for the city at once. The stenographer's hands were soon going like the piston-rod of a steam-engine in the effort to jot down the short, pointed sentences.

"The opinion was finished just sixteen minutes before the New York train was scheduled to leave a station four miles from Mr. Dill's house. The automobile, with the clerk aboard, covered the distance in thirteen minutes, breaking every speed-limit ordinance known to New Jersey constables in the effort to catch that train. Another automobile was telephoned for to meet the clerk at the New York end, and when the machine got under way scarcely twenty minutes remained in which to cross the city to the Grand Central Station. The trip was made with eight minutes to spare."

The clerk caught the midnight express, delivering the opinion on time the next day. The document was immediately submitted to the opposing attorney, who on reading it abandoned the injunctory proceedings altogether.

SVEN HEDIN, THE GREAT SWEDISH EXPLORER.

THE last century has produced two great Scandinavian explorers—Nansen and Sven Hedin. Of the latter, there is an interesting description in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January :

"From boyhood he showed that his natural bent lay in the direction of geographical discovery. When only fifteen or sixteen, he made a series of maps to illustrate the path of every explorer of the Arctic regions, and the drawing and execution of these maps were extremely good. Later on, he pursued a course of geographical literature, and finally completed his studies at Berlin under Baron von Richthofen. In 1887, he wrote an account of his experiences in traveling through Trans-Caucasia to Persia, Mesopotamia, and home by Turkey and Bulgaria. In 1890, he was sent by King Oscar on a mission to the Shah, and published next year an account of his journey. In 1891, he translated into Swedish

General Prjevalsky's travels in northern Asia. In the following year, he published an account of his travels in eastern Persia and through Bokhara to Kashgar, with many clever sketches by himself, as he is an accomplished draughtsman. All this was an excellent training for the infinitely more arduous journeys he was about to undertake. In February, 1894, with twelve horses and four men, Dr. Hedin began a dangerous journey across the Pamirs from Tashkend to Kashgar, in eastern Turkestan."

One great object of this expedition was to explore the glaciers of the mountain Mushtaghata, some 25,500 feet high.

"After spending the winter in Kashgar, in February, 1895, Dr. Hedin started eastward to explore the Takla-makan desert, in the hopes of finding traces of ancient civilization, and then intended to penetrate into Tibet. Unfortunately, this journey turned out disastrously, and it was almost by a miracle that the hardy traveler escaped with his life."

In December, 1895, he left Kashgar and traversed the Takla-makan desert, being the first European to venture across it. He then made Khotan his headquarters.

"Great preparations were here made before crossing the great Kuenlun range and thence by way of Koko-nor to Peking. An idea of the hardship undergone during this long march may be gained by the fact that out of fifty-six baggage animals, no less than forty-nine died on the road. Where pasture was scarce or wanting, they died at the rate of one or two a day. The Kuenlun was crossed by a pass about 16,000 feet above the sea, and a range more to the south was traversed by a new pass 17,000 feet high. For two whole months the party wandered across the plateau of Tibet without seeing a single living being, and the caravan had dwindled to an alarming extent.

"In January, 1897, Dr. Hedin reached Peking, and there enjoyed a well-earned repose before returning to his native country. Between 1899 and 1902, Dr. Hedin explored the Tarim River from near Yarkand to its lower extremity, and has mapped it in about one hundred sheets. This survey included a part of the desert of Gobi that had never been visited before. The first expedition to Tibet was made in the latter half of 1900. A large part of the caravan and one man perished under the incredible hardships undergone while traversing this inhospitable and lofty region, destitute of all vegetation. The longest journey through Tibet was begun in May, 1901. Two attempts to enter Lhasa proved unsuccessful owing to the hostility of the Lamas."

A FRENCH PHILANTHROPIST.

EACH nation has its great philanthropists. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, there is given an interesting account of a remarkable Frenchman, Augustus Cochin, the most actively beneficent of that wonderful group of liberal Roman Catholics, which included Lacordaire. Cochin was born in 1824, and died in 1872; yet during this comparatively short life he accomplished an immense amount of good, and had a very real influence on his generation. He was only nineteen when he founded his first workman's club, which was at the same time a mutual aid society.

In order to carry out his scheme for the amelioration of the working classes, he entered political life, and became mayor of one of the most populous districts of Paris. With extraordinary energy, he threw himself into the difficult question of the housing of the working classes. He started an insurance society, and last, not least, he compelled the government to open a post-office savings-bank. He was evidently one of those idealists who are capable of causing their ideals to come true. Not content in taking so active a part in benefiting the Paris worker of all classes and conditions, he organized several great purely charitable centers. In 1855, he found the funds which enabled the Little Sisters of the Poor to open a home for one hundred and eighty destitute old men and women. Three years later, he organized the first home for incurables in Paris. Thanks to his efforts, the first country convalescent home ever opened in France was built in the neighborhood of Paris, and every Friday he was himself at home to all those, from the very poorest beggars, who desired to ask his help.

Concerning these cases, observes his son, he preserved an absolute silence, and, further, he never allowed his name to be directly associated with any of his innumerable good works. There is something very sad in the thought that Cochin died just after the Franco-Prussian War, and before his beloved country had recovered from the terrible moments through which she had just passed.

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF AUSTRALIA.

THE present governor-general of Australia is the second Lord Tennyson, son of the poet. An interesting article is contributed to the *Woman at Home* by a writer signing herself "Ignota" on the life of Lord Tennyson. His famous father wrote of him: "Kindest and best of sons and most unselfish of men." One of Lord Tennyson's greatest obstacles in the path to greatness, as well as one of his great assist-

ances, has been that he is known rather as the son of his famous father than for his own work.

"The new governor-general of the Australian Commonwealth had an exceptionally good training, from childhood upward, for the not very easy task which lies before him. He has known, and been intimately associated with, many of the great thinkers and workers of our time, from Queen Victoria—who had for him both affection and esteem—to General Gordon.

"The story goes that on the occasion of the christening the historian remarked, 'Why not give the child your own name as well as mine? Why not call him Alfred Hallam Tennyson?' 'For fear,' said the deep-voiced bard, 'for fear he should turn out a fool! Let his name be Hallam only.'"

Educated at Marlborough and at Cambridge, Hallam Tennyson filled for many years the difficult post of private secretary to his father. He follows in his father's footsteps, and writes poetry. Perhaps in the future more of his work may be published.

HIS OFFICIAL CAREER.

The four years following the death of the poet-laureate were occupied in the preparation of his biography by his son. After this appeared, Lord Tennyson was quietly fitting himself for future official duties, and in 1899 received the appointment to the governorship of South Australia. At first, the South Australians regarded him with reserve, but after his arrival he soon won his way to the hearts of the majority. The fact that he allowed himself to be interviewed for Sir John Langdon Bonython's well-known paper, the *Advertiser*, did much to reassure the colonists as to the nature of their new governor.

On the retirement of the first governor-general, Lord Hopetoun, Lord Tennyson accepted the post for one year. Since he was one of the hardest workers for federation, it is only fitting that he should receive this honor.

THE NEW PRIMATE OF ENGLAND.

CANON BENHAM contributes to the *Treasury* for February some reminiscences of Dr. Randall Davidson, the new Archbishop of Canterbury. Canon Benham says that Davidson is a very good scholar and a very well-read man. He had a terrible accident in the latter part of his university career which laid him by for many weeks, and prevented him going in for honors. His old master, Vaughan, of Harrow, felt confident that, but for that accident, he would have distinguished himself greatly.

ONE OF VAUGHAN'S MEN.

When preparing for Holy Orders, he was one of "Vaughan's men," and put himself under the moral guidance and finished scholarship of the Dean of Llandaff. As Canon Benham preached the sermon when Dr. Davidson was ordained in Croydon Church, in 1875, he has known him for a quarter of a century. Dr. Davidson became curate of Dartford after his ordination. Two years later, he became resident chaplain to Archbishop Tait, where he fell in love with Edith, the archbishop's daughter, and married her on November 12, 1878. His business capacity was tested when, as resident chaplain, he had to organize a conference of English, colonial, and American bishops at Canterbury. His honeymoon was interrupted by the death of his mother-in-law, who died three weeks after they were married. For four years he became the right-hand man of the widowed archbishop; he was not only chaplain and secretary, but the confidential adviser of the primate.

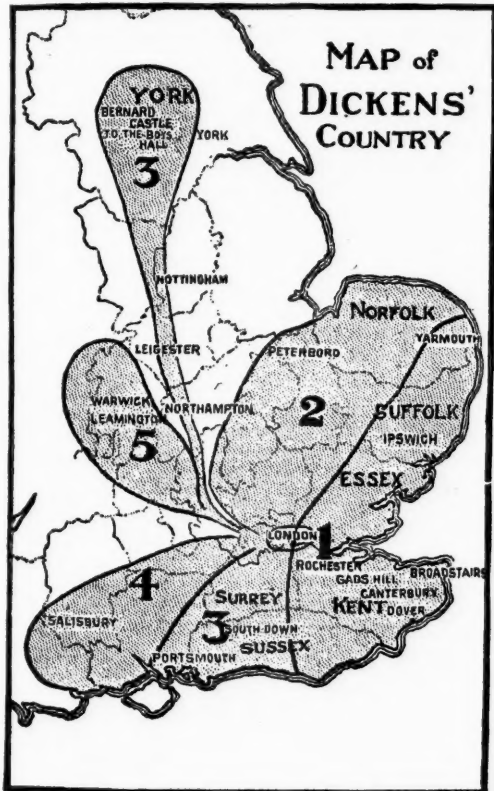
CHAPLAIN TO DR. BENSON.

Canon Benham believes that it was he who convinced Dr. Tait that the Public Worship Regulation Act had proved a failure. When Dr. Tait died, Dr. Benson made Dr. Davidson his domestic chaplain, a post which he preferred to two rich canonries that were pressed upon him in vain. He became examining chaplain to Bishop Lightfoot at Durham. Queen Victoria made his acquaintance when she sent for him to tell her more about the last days of Archbishop Tait. Just then the deanery of Windsor fell vacant, and the Queen, after a conference with Mr. Gladstone, nominated Dr. Davidson to that post. The Queen made him her confidant, and in 1891 appointed him to the See of Rochester, where he very nearly died, but pulled through chiefly owing to what the doctor attributed to the calmness of his patient. After a time, he was appointed to Winchester, whence he has been transferred to Canterbury. He leaves his diocese at peace, and Canon Benham speaks in the warmest terms of the sympathy which he has ever shown to his colleagues.

DICKENS' COUNTRY.

LONDON is the real Dickens land, but he made excursions in the home and eastern counties of England, and once traveled as far north as South Durham. The *Pall Mall Magazine* for February contains an interesting paper by Mr. W. Sharp, devoted to a description of the localities mentioned in Dickens' novels. Scott covered much of the Continent and all of

the British Isles, whereas Dickens confined himself to one corner of England, described by Mr. Sharp as lying between the marches of York and Durham counties on the north, and Portsmouth and the nose of Kent on the south; between Salisbury Plain, Warwick, and Leamington on the west, and the seabeaches of Suffolk and the Thames and Medway estuaries on the east. This is best illustrated by the map, which we reproduce:



The part marked 1 is preëminently the Dickens country, from Yarmouth on the north to Dover on the south. Apart from "David Copperfield," "Pickwick," "Great Expectations," etc., it comprises Gad's Hill and Broadstairs, for long the novelist's two favorite places of residence. Rochester (the Cloisterham, Dullborough, Mudfog, etc., of the novels) may be called its literary capital. (Several of the novels, mostly cast in London or other towns, run into No. 1, as, besides those named, "A Tale of Two Cities," "Bleak House," etc.)

No. 2. For parts of "Oliver Twist," "Old Curiosity Shop," "Barnaby Rudge," etc.

No. 3. Mainly for "Nicholas Nickleby" in its two sections, and also in its upper part for "Master Humphrey's Clock."

No. 4. The country of "Martin Chuzzlewit" away from London.

No. 5. The country of "Dombey and Son."

DICKENS AND LANDSEER.

IN the February number of the *Magazine of Art* there is an interesting article on "Charles Dickens as a Lover of Art and Artists," written by his youngest daughter, Mrs. Kate Perugini. The following recollections of Landseer are quoted from this article:

"For Edwin Landseer, my father had a peculiarly enthusiastic admiration, placing him with Maclise in the high estimation he held of their many-sided genius; and I have often heard him say that of all the men he had known during his literary career, those two must inevitably have risen to the highest point of excellence in whatever profession or position in life they may have found themselves.

"In Edwin Landseer he had not only a warm friend, but one for whom his own regard increased as they both grew older and Landseer had a little put aside the slight affectation of manner which his position of a renowned painter, a great wit, and a spoiled pet of society had tempted him to indulge in. There is a story my father used to tell touching upon this, and upon the excessive nervousness and the sensitive nature of the artist, which I think I may relate.

LANDSEER'S NERVOUSNESS.

"It happened that on one occasion when Landseer was engaged to dine at my father's house all the company had assembled in the drawing-room with the exception of the painter. My father, who had invited him earlier than his other guests, knowing that he would probably arrive the last of all, grew impatient, but drawing out his watch, determined to wait for him another quarter of an hour. After that time had elapsed, no Landseer appearing, he decided upon going downstairs with his friends, and dinner was well-nigh half over before Landseer walked in. My father received him rather coldly, thinking that his affectation was becoming intolerable and deserved a slight punishment; but my aunt, who sat near to where Landseer was placed, noticed that he was very pale, and that his hands and face were twitching nervously. He became more composed as the dinner proceeded, and after it was over, took my father aside and told him that he had left his studio early enough to reach Devonshire Terrace in good time for dinner, and was anxious to be in time, as he knew my father's punctual habits, but that, as his foot almost touched the doorstep of the house, one of those terrible fits of nervousness and shyness to which he was subject came upon him, and he was obliged to walk up and down the street for a long time before he could summon up courage to ring at the bell. I can imagine

how the severity of my father's manner softened at this confession, and how eagerly and affectionately he must have assured his friend of his warm sympathy."

WAS AMERICA THE CRADLE OF ASIA?

AN interesting article in the March *Harper's*, by Dr. Stewart Culin, "America the Cradle of Asia," shows the falsity of our usual conception of America as "the new world," and gives some almost startling evidence to support the belief that Asiatic civilization was cradled on this side of the Pacific. "We find upon the western continent things not only similar to those of Asia, but precisely identical with them; things not only the same in form and use, but in source and development as well, and at the same time so empirical and complex that no theory of their having been produced independently under like conditions, of their being the products of a similar yet independent creative impulse, seems longer tenable.

"If we reject the theory of Asiatic origin, there are two explanations open to us: First, that at one period of man's history he had certain ideas in common on both continents; that his customs were fundamentally the same and knew no geographical boundaries. Second, that these identical customs originated in America, and were disseminated thence over the world; that the American culture, no longer to be regarded as sterile and unproductive, must be given its due place among the influences which have contributed to the origin and development of our own civilization."

Dr. Culin supports the latter view notwithstanding that it presupposes an antiquity for American civilization as great, if not greater, than the earliest known or suspected Babylonian or Egyptian eras.

Among the curious evidences cited to support this theory are the divining-rods described in the oldest known Chinese book, the *Yi King*, dating from the twelfth century B.C. "Now, the splints used in Asia find their counterpart in America in the gambling-sticks used by many tribes. Thus, in Hupa Valley, California, we find the same bundle of fine rods, manipulated in the same way by rolling in the hands, divided at random into two bundles and counted off as in Asia. Even the number of the sticks remains practically the same." The common use of the arrow as a symbol for man, the similarity of the Mexican game of patolli to the Hindu game of pochesi, and other such marvelous coincidences are described by Dr. Culin to support his theory that America contributed her share to the world's civilization.

STUDIES IN BIRD-SONG.

IT is a charming diversion from the usually solid articles of the *London Quarterly Review* when Mr. Robert McLeod favors us with an essay on the development of bird-song. He reviews two works on the subject by Mr. Charles A. Witchell, who defines bird-song as the whole range of voice in birds. He suggests that the first vocal sounds were cries of terror or anger. To the danger-signal and combat cry is added the call-note. These three strands have been woven into the song of most of our birds.

MIMICRY IN BIRDS.

Imitation is represented as one of the principal sources of musical composition among birds:

"The warblers have, as we might expect, much in common in their voices; and the sedge-warbler, a mighty singer, is a gifted mimic. There is practically no limit to the variety of sounds it can reproduce. We have listened to its extraordinary song,—a medley of many strains,—when twilight was deepening into darkness, and have been entranced. It is impossible to describe it,—rapid, of many tones, of manifold lights and shades, of varied cadences, reproducing with absolute fidelity the songs of neighbor birds, in some cases apparently arranged in a preconcerted order. Buntings imitate pipits; greenfinches and yellow-hammers have similar voices; and we know that in winter they seek their food in the same places, and hear each other's calls. So imitative is the jay in a wild state that it has been known to introduce into its song not only the shrill *whew* of the kite, the scream of the buzzard, and the hooting of the owl, but the bleating of the lamb and the neighing of the horse. A sparrow, we are told, educated under a linnet, hearing by accident a goldfinch sing, developed a song that was a mixture of the songs of these two birds; while another, brought up in a cage of canaries, sang like a canary, only better; a third, reared in a cage close to a skylark, imitated with surprising success the skylark's song, but interrupted the strain with its own call-notes. . . . Animal cries, too, have been imitated. The roar of the ostrich and of the lion, it is said, are so similar that even Hottentots are sometimes unable to discriminate between them."

THE NIGHTINGALE'S REPERTORY.

Mr. Witchell is undoubtedly a bold man. He has not feared to attempt a description of the witchery of the nightingale's song. The prose-writer has rushed in where even poets feared to tread; and we are grateful to the reviewer for reproducing the passage which follows:

"The fullness of tone which the nightingale

displays interferes with the accuracy of imitation in many instances; and, indeed, so wonderful is the song that the listener is apt to forget all else than the supreme impulse and passion of the singer. Perhaps the surroundings of the bird increase the effect. The murmur of the stream; the soft moonlight which bathes the dewy meadow and sheds white waves across the woodland tract, checkered with shadows of clustering fresh May leaves,—these are suitable features in the realm of this monarch of song, and increase the effect. Now it prolongs its repetitions till the wood rings. Now its note seems as soft as a kiss; now it is a loud shout, perchance a threat (rrrrrr); now a soft *peeuu, peeuu*, swelling in an amazing crescendo. Now it imitates the *sip sip sip sisisisisi* of the woodwarbler, now the bubbling notes of the nuthatch. The scientific investigator is abashed by this tempestuous song, this wild melody, the triumph-song of Nature herself, piercing beyond the ear, right to the heart. It is pleading now! But no, it is declamatory; now weird, now fierce; triumphant, half merry. One seems to hear it chuckle, mock, and defy almost in the same breath."

WHY BIRDS SING.

The reviewer thinks that the influence of love on the evolution of bird-song has been much exaggerated. In the case of migrants, the male bird sings rapturously *before* the arrival of the female, but "as a matter of fact, it is not till courtship is over, the nest built, and domestic cares begun that the bird utters its full heart. . . . The perfect melody is not that of one who woos, but of one who has won. . . . Song, which in its highest display belongs to the spring of the year, is uttered in the main by the adult male. It is probably a manifestation of vigor and exuberant vitality. It is the overflow of the new life and contagious gladness which the springtide, with its abundance of food and its bright sunshine, bring to the healthy bird."

LIFE IN A CONSUMPTION SANATORIUM.

ACCORDING to the French specialists in tuberculosis, fresh air and food will do much, but they will do more for the consumptive patient if the cure is carried out in a high altitude. M. Corday contributes to the *Revue de Paris* a vivid and most interesting account of life in a French sanatorium, or open-air cure.

The sanatorium described is that of Hauteville en Bugey, and is entirely devoted to the needs of the consumptive workers of Lyons. The tiny village, of which the description re-

calls that of Oberammergau, is situated in the French Jura, and the sanatorium is about a mile from the village. It is a very large building, of which the most important section is called the cure gallery, consisting of a sort of huge roofed-in balcony of course entirely open to the air, and where the patients spend the whole day reclining on deck chairs. A rather melancholy feature of the sanatorium—to Anglo-Saxon notions—is that the sexes are never allowed to meet; each sex has its own dining-room, drawing-room, even its own gardens.

Of course, the fact that the sanatorium is a philanthropic institution makes it far easier to carry out the rules, and in some ways makes the experiment a more interesting one. No cases in the very first or in the very last stages of the disease are accepted for treatment.

A SANATORIUM HOTEL.

The writer went on from Hauteville to another sanatorium, managed on very different lines. There he soon discovered that the patients were mostly of the wealthier classes, and in many cases the guest under treatment was accompanied by several relations, while, of course, there was no bar put to ordinary intercourse between the sexes. Indeed, he says that it would be difficult to tell such a sanatorium from an ordinary hotel, were it not for the cure gallery, and for the fact that in many of the rooms the windows have been bodily taken out.

DAVOSPLATZ.

From this place he went on to Davosplatz, of all the high-altitude cures in some ways the most interesting, though, of course, it is only comparatively lately that the open-air cure, as now understood, has been practised there. It is clear from this paper that the French municipal authorities are tackling the whole problem of consumption and its cure in a business-like spirit. Ere long, every great industrial center in France will have its state-managed sanatorium, where the poorest will have the best and most skillful of care.

THE REFORM OF THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF WRITING.

AT a time when European institutions of learning are introducing the Chinese language and literature into their curricula, Columbia University being the first one in this country to offer courses in Chinese, this winter, the Japanese, who more than 1,200 years ago adopted the Chinese system of writing, are deliberating the means of discarding that system as

too cumbersome and adopting a phonetic system similar to the Latin alphabet. The system of Chinese hieroglyphics and its disadvantages for a progressive people like the Japanese, anxious to assimilate Western culture, is discussed in a fascinating article by Ludwig Riess, an ex-professor of the university of Tokyo, in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for December. This complicated system of eastern Asia, that is still the principal subject of instruction in progressive Japan and backward Korea, that puzzles the Dutch soldier and the German planter on Java and Sumatra, and that in our ethnographic museums is the means of bringing to light the inexhaustible intellectual treasures of ages long past, the writer designates as one of the greatest marvels of human ingenuity.

CHINESE IDEOGRAMS.

Some analogies to the Chinese ideograms may be found among Western peoples; for instance, numerals, mathematical signs, chemical formulae, signals, escutcheons, emblems, flags at half-mast, the Red Cross, etc., are signs that are universally recognizable. Ideograms, directly expressing ideas without the medium of words, form the basis of the system of the thousands of signs by means of which the eastern Asiatic peoples express their thoughts to the eye, whereas for the Western peoples the sound that reaches the ear is the chief medium for transmitting thought, for even in reading we unconsciously translate the letters into sounds. The Chinese sees in his ideogram a concrete conventional image of the idea presented to him. Thoughts are transmitted to him by his system of writing as clearly and intelligibly as thoughts are transmitted to the architect by his plan, to the geologist by his map, to the physician by the curves of temperature of his patient, to the meteorologist by his weather chart. As the image called up before the eye is originally independent of the sounds that convey the same thoughts to the ear, discrepancies may arise between the written and the spoken words that are entirely impossible in a phonetic system. Faithful stenographic reports of speeches seem strange to the reading public of Japan. The Japanese is not impressed by the solemn proclamations of the Emperor when he listens to them, but when he sees them in good print. The work of the great Japanese poet does not delight the ear by its harmonies of sound, but the eye by its brilliant display on paper. On the stage, the exaggerated situations and the pantomime of the players serve to supply the limitations of the language.

Centuries ago, the Japanese adopted the Chi-

nese system of writing, together with Chinese culture, their intellectual life becoming Sino-Japanese, as the culture of ancient Italy was Græco-Roman. And through the continued study of Chinese literature, more than thirty thousand ideograms became fixed in the memory of the educated classes. When the Japanese decided to accept European culture, about half a century ago, and introduced in an amazingly short time the appliances of modern civilization, they were confronted with the question that the writer still regards as the most important one for Japan's future: Shall the system of writing adopted from the Chinese be retained, in view of this new condition of things? or can and will a convenient means of written communication similar to the European alphabet crown the work of Europeanizing Japan, that has been so auspiciously begun?

DISADVANTAGES OF THE CHINESE SYSTEM.

Although attempts have been made to introduce a phonetic system that in theory has been brought nearly to perfection, the writer holds that at the present stage of the intellectual development of Japan it is impossible to discard at once the Chinese system, as it is too intimately connected with the life and literature of the people, countless ideograms being fixed in the memory of most men and half of the women, and 2,350 of these signs alone being used in the daily papers. Still, its disadvantages are patent in any attempts to acquire a more universal culture. As the writer says: "Seven years of schooling and a one-sided development of the memory are the price that every Japanese must pay for acquiring his national culture. Although he receives in addition an unusual training of the eye and develops great skill in drawing that is of advantage to all the arts and crafts, the Japanese pupil is far behind Western children as regards intellectual activity and practical knowledge. In common sense, independent thinking, ethical ideals, and imagination, the Japanese student cannot compare with the German graduate." These differences, the writer thinks, are due not so much to racial peculiarities as to the schooling the Japanese receives. Up to the age of thirteen or fourteen, the Japanese child cannot read anything outside of his class lesson, and is therefore shut off from all those sources of information that a Western child finds in his outside, miscellaneous reading.

PROPOSED REFORMS.

It is proposed, in the first place, to make a selection of the 1,300 most indispensable ideograms, which every child must learn. Next

comes the old Japanese system, the double syllabary with 49 characters each, that are used for particles and inflections. And in the third place, the Japanese child, already overburdened with reading exercises, must learn the Latin letters of our Western alphabet. As regards the sequence of teaching these three systems, the writer holds that the child should begin with the last-named, the European phonetic system, as it is the simplest and most quickly learned, and has moreover the advantage of training the ear as well as the eye, thus enabling the child to learn to read more quickly by himself. Although this question of the sequence may seem petty, the writer thinks that it involves much of the efficacy of the impending reform in the intellectual development of the Japanese people.

THE SACRED CITY OF LHASSA REVEALED.

VARIOUS attempts have been made to penetrate to the city of the Grand Lama, in Tibet. It seems to be the general belief that the feat has always proved impossible; but this is far from being the case, and it is generally to be seen that those adventuring either with large trains or from the Chinese frontier are the ones doomed to failure. There is now living quietly in India a man who has been in Lhasa and knows about all that is to be known of it. His report to the Indian Government, obtainable long since in Russia, has been rescued from obscurity by the Royal Geographical Society, and will soon be published. Mr. Archibald Colquhoun writes an interesting account of Lhasa and Tibet in the January *Cornhill*.

WHAT IS LHASSA LIKE?

Mr. Colquhoun says:

"It is not difficult, by means of the descriptions of Huc and our traveler, to conjure up a picture of the sacred city; and considering that architecture in Tibet is usually of the most unornamental character, a bird's-eye view must be more impressive than might be expected. Dominating everything is the rugged mass of Potala, the palace of the Dalai Lama, itself some nine stories high in the center, probably about three hundred feet high, and surmounting a conical hill. Flags and strings of colored rags wave and flutter in the breeze from every window, and the gilt domes and roofs glitter in the sunshine. Round Potala are towers, chapels, and pavilions, gleaming with gold and silver, and below lies the town, from which an avenue of giant trees leads to the palace. The center of the city is the great temple, or cathedral, from which all the streets radiate. Here are also the

government offices. The houses are mostly of clay and sun-dried bricks, while those of the richer class are built of brick or stone, hewn into square blocks, and neatly fitted. They are all given a coat of whitewash, which with the red-painted woodwork of the doors and windows imparts a fictitious air of cleanliness. Windows are sometimes glazed, but more often prepared in Chinese fashion, and the buildings rise from two to four stories, some having towers and gilded roofs. Within, the most striking characteristic is the dirt. Very few have any chimney or hole for smoke, which is expected to find its way out of door or window. Nevertheless, the ceilings are frequently silk, the walls hung with satin or brocade, and the floors glossy; but the effect is that of gaudy squalor. For furniture, Tibetans have stuffed rags or flat cushions to sit on, with miniature tables on which food is set. Tea is drunk all day long, a favorite form being 'battered tea,' a concoction of tea-leaves stewed and mixed with rancid butter and barley flour. Mutton and yak beef are eaten in great quantities, but our traveler speaks of the 'tsamba,' or barley gruel, as the 'national food.'"

THE DALAI LAMA.

The life of the little Incarnate Buddhas, who occupy the central position in Lhasa and of the Buddhist faith, seems to be a very unpleasant one, if we may judge by the writer's account of what Manning and the Abbé Huc saw on their visits:

"The hall at the top of the palace in which the poor little fellow sat was full of solemn lamas, motionless and silent as the grave, each with his eyes fixed steadily on the tip of his own nose. In the midst of this grave assemblage sat the sacred head of the Buddhist religion, a bright, fair-complexioned boy with rosy cheeks, large and penetrating eyes, and an Aryan type of countenance. His frame was thin with fastings and prayers, and one cannot help feeling heart-sick at the thought of the poor child, a mere puppet in reality though invested with so much sanctity, cut off by no fault of his own from all the joys of youth, and probably destined to die a violent death in his early manhood, since the powers that be prefer a young and helpless Dalai Lama. No wonder that Manning, when he visited the Dalai Lama of his time, could think of nothing but the beautiful face of the doomed child, and that he felt his eyes full of tears."

HOW THE DALAI LAMA IS CHOSEN.

Mr. Colquhoun gives an interesting account of how the choice of this chief priest is arrived at: "At present, the choice of this chief priest of

Buddhism is decided in a curious fashion. When the time for reincarnation arrives (*i.e.*, on the death of a Dalai Lama), search is made among certain families for a child in which the spirit is reincarnated. Narrowing the selection down to three by the consultation of omens, they bring the three babies to the temple, and draw lots for them. The unsuccessful ones are rewarded by a sum of money; the unfortunate successful one takes up his residence at Potala."

JOHN RUSKIN'S INDEX EXPURGATORIUS.

A HITHERTO unpublished letter which John Ruskin addressed to Mr. E. T. Cook when he was assistant editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* has been brought to light by Mr. W. T. Stead and published in *Success* for January. Mr. Cook brought out in those days a "Pall Mall Extra," suggested by Sir John Lubbock's list of the best hundred books. He sent the list to Mr. Ruskin, who returned it scored through and blotted. "Putting my pen lightly through the needless and blottesquely through the rubbish and poison of Sir John's list, I leave enough for a life's liberal reading and choice for any true worker's loyal reading."

NEEDLESS BOOKS.

The following is a list of the needless books :

Marcus Aurelius — "Meditations."	Pascal—"Pensees."	Southey.
Confucius — "Analects."	Spinoza.	Longfellow.
Aristotle—"Ethics."	Butler—"Analogy."	Home.
Mohammed—"Koran."	Nibelungenlied.	Macaulay.
Apostolic Fathers.	Malory — "Mort d'Arthur."	Froude.
St. Augustine—"Confessions."	Mahabharata.	Goethe's Faust.
Thomas à Kempis—"Imitations."	Firdusi.	Thackeray.
	Sheking.	George Eliot.
	Sophocles.	Kingsley.
	Euripides.	Bulwer Lytton.

POISONOUS AND RUBBISH.

Gibbon—"Decline and Fall."	Darwin—"Origin of Species."
Voltaire—"Charles XII." and "Louis XIV."	Smith, Adam—"Wealth of Nations."
Hume—"History of England."	Locke—"Human Understanding."
Grote—"History of Greece."	Cook—"Voyages."
Mill—"Political Economy."	

WHY HE BLOTTED OUT THESE BOOKS.

Answering Mr. Cook's question why he blotted out these books, Mr. Ruskin wrote :

"1.—Grote's 'History of Greece.'—Because there is probably no commercial establishment, between Charing Cross and the Bank, whose

head clerk could not write a better one, if he had the vanity to waste his time on it.

"2.—'Confessions of St. Augustine.'—Because religious people nearly always think too much about themselves; and there are many saints whom it is much more desirable to know—the history of St. Patrick to begin with—especially in modern times.

"3.—John Stuart Mill.—Sir John Lubbock ought to have known that his day is over.

"4.—Charles Kingsley.—Because his sentiment is false and his tragedy frightful. People who buy cheap clothes are not punished in real life by catching fevers; social inequalities are not to be redressed by tailors falling in love with bishops' daughters, or gamekeepers with squires; and the story of Hypatia is the most ghastly in Christian tradition, and should forever have been left in silence.

"5.—Darwin.—Because it is every man's duty to know what he *is*, and not to think of the embryo he was, nor the skeleton that he should be. Because, too, Darwin has a mortal fascination for all vainly curious and idly speculative persons, and has collected in the train of him every impudent imbecility in Europe, like a dim comet wagging its useless tail of phosphorescent nothing across the steadfast stars.

"6.—Gibbon.—Primarily, none but the malignant and the weak study the decline and fall of either state or organism. Dissolution and putrescence are alike common and unclean in all things; any wretch or simpleton may observe for himself, and experience in himself, the process of ruin; but good men study, and wise men describe, only the growth and standing of things,—not their decay.

"For the rest, Gibbon's is the worst English that was ever written by an educated Englishman. Having no imagination, and little logic, he is alike incapable either of picturesqueness or wit; his epithets are malicious without point, sonorous without weight, and have no office but to make a flat sentence turgid.

"7.—Voltaire.—His work is, in comparison with good literature, what nitric acid is to wine, and sulphuretted hydrogen to air. Literary chemists cannot but take account of the sting and stench of him, but he has no place in the library of a thoughtful scholar. Every man of sense knows more of the world than Voltaire can tell him; and what he wishes to express of such knowledge he will say without a snarl."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE opening article of the March *Century*, by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, entitled "The Great Northwest," is another reminder that the geographical expression "Northwest," as used in the United States, has quite a different meaning from what it had a quarter of a century ago. To the Eastern reader, at that time the word would have indicated pretty nearly the whole region of country lying west of the Great Lakes and north of the Missouri and Ohio rivers. At the present time, however, the term is quite sharply limited, and, as used in Mr. Baker's article, applies only to the country west of the Rocky Mountains and north of California. The changes in that country during the last two or three decades have been rapid, and what was true of the "boom" towns of the eighties and other transitory phases of settlement by no means holds good to-day. Much fresh and interesting information is brought out in Mr. Baker's article, especially in his descriptions of the agricultural possibilities of the States of Oregon and Washington. For example, in the region between the Cascade Mountains and the Rockies, a large territory in eastern Washington, northeastern Oregon, and northwestern Idaho is tilled by the process that has come to be known as "dry farming." In this region, there is double the rainfall of most of the arid Northwest, though the total precipitation is only a small fraction of that in western Washington. Within a few years, this country has developed one of the most important wheat centers in the United States. The soil is rich, raising without fertilization as much as thirty-five bushels to the acre, though Mr. Baker says that the country is often so dry that it seems as if the fields must blow away in dust. In some regions, water must be hauled for miles, often by railroad, for culinary purposes. Spokane, with a population of 36,000, is the center of this agricultural district.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM.

The subject of European immigration to the United States is discussed in a group of three articles. The picturesque phases of the matter are treated in a characteristic sketch by Jacob A. Riis, entitled "In the Gateway of Nations." Mr. Riis graphically describes the experiences of the immigrant as he lands at Ellis Island and is put through the various formalities preliminary to admission as a prospective citizen of the great republic.

M. Gustav Michaud analyzes the complex question of races with a view to determining some of the features of the coming American type. Prof. Franklin Giddings, commenting on the statistics brought out by Mr. Michaud, reminds us that the English people, at the time when the early settlements were made in this country, was itself the product of a racial admixture quite as startling as that which is foretold with regard to the United States, and which, in fact, we are now witnessing.

WHY CAPITAL SHOULD "ORGANIZE."

Apropos of recent issues between labor and capital, Mr. Herman Justi raises the question whether there is not at the present time, after all, greater need of an organization on capital's side than on labor's. He makes

a sharp distinction between organized labor and consolidated capital. This distinction clearly appears whenever there is a conflict between unorganized capital and organized labor; that is to say, capital may have been consolidated without any system having been created which insures the united action of the capitalists in a time of conflict with their laborers. The recent anthracite strike, for example, showed the owners of the mines to be really at war with one another on various points, while the miners' union presented a united front.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. William H. Pickering states what has been done during the past fifteen years by way of securing sites for American observatories in localities where the atmosphere is "steady." By steadiness of the atmosphere Professor Pickering means the absence of wavering, such as is indicated by the shimmer in the air seen in looking at an object across a hot stove, or along a railroad track on a hot summer day. Sites of this character have been secured in Jamaica, Peru, and in a few localities in the United States, such as the top of Pike's Peak and Flagstaff, Arizona.

Mr. George Buchanan Fife tells the wonderful story of the American Tobacco Trust.

Prof. Justin H. Smith, in his series of articles on "The Prologue of the American Revolution," gives a detailed account of Montgomery's struggle for Quebec, with numerous illustrations.

Mr. Will Paine contributes an interesting description of the Chicago Board of Trade, which he insists is really a national institution as a "clearing-house of opinion."

HARPER'S.

THE March *Harper's* is almost entirely devoted to fiction and other contributions of an æsthetic nature. Exceptions are the second installment of Mr. Thomas A. Janvier's "Dutch Founding of New York," "Recent Discoveries in the Forum," by G. Boni, and "Our American Tyrol," a pleasant description of the Vermont and New Hampshire mountain regions and their homely types. The number opens with Mr. Edwin A. Abbey's illustrations for "Richard II.," printed in a "Critical Comment" by no less than Algernon Charles Swinburne. The poet dares to say just what is good and bad in this first historic play of the young Shakespeare, and considers the play's greatest interest to be in "the obvious evidence which it gives of the struggle between the worse and better genius of its author." Mr. Swinburne thinks that this first essay of Shakespeare's into historical drama shows even more imperfections than "Romeo and Juliet," the first tragedy.

This number of *Harper's* is rich in fiction and imaginative illustration. Besides the chapter in Mrs. Ward's novel, "Lady Rose's Daughter," there is the second part of Maurice Hewlett's new tale, "Buondelmonte," and capital short stories by Norman Duncan, Margaret Sutton Briscoe, Herman Whitaker, and others.

In the "Editor's Study," Mr. H. M. Alden, the veteran editor of *Harper's*, discusses the touchiness of magazine contributors concerning suggestions of changes in their manuscripts, and agrees with Mr. Howells that

it is chiefly the second-rate young author somewhat spoiled by a little quickly earned popularity that shows the greatest horror at any tampering with his most trivial sentences. Mr. Alden says, and no one is a better authority, that the best literary workmen welcome suggestions of changes in their works, and tells of one author who contributed to *Harper's* for forty years without ever furnishing a short story that was not susceptible to easy improvement.

Prof. Stewart Culin's "America the Cradle of Asia" is quoted from in another department.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

JUSTICE DAVID J. BREWER writes in the March *Scribner's* of "The Supreme Court of the United States," and of the great importance the work of that body has for our present and future national life. The questions of most vital import that the complexities of modern life have brought before this supreme tribunal are divided by Justice Brewer into four main groups: first, those growing out of the controversies between labor and capital; second, those affecting the relative powers of the nation and the States; third, those arising out of our new possessions, and fourth, those which will come because our relations to all other nations "have grown to be so close and will surely increase in intimacy."

There is a charming account of the coronation of the Czar Alexander III. in the letters of Mary King Waddington, the French ambassadress, concluded in this number. A picturesque contribution by E. C. Peixotto describes the "Marionettes and Puppet Shows" of the past and present, and there are several excellent stories.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM Mr. Samuel E. Moffett's article, on "The War on the Locomotive," in *McClure's* for March we have already quoted at some length in another department. In the same number, Mr. Frank H. Spearman gives a sketch of John L. Whitman, the jailer of the Cook County Jail at Chicago, in which are confined more prisoners awaiting trial than in any other jail in the world. Jailer Whitman, by the repeated exhibition of kindness to the inmates,—but of "the kind of kindness that compels," as Mr. Spearman puts it,—has won the confidence of all the prisoners to a remarkable degree. More than once Whitman's life has been protected by his prisoners, and those the men with the worst records. One feature of his administration of the jail has been the series of entertainments given to the prisoners, who have themselves formed an association to take charge of such entertainments, and have given it the name of the John L. Whitman Moral Improvement Association. At the time of President McKinley's assassination, the prisoners assembled and expressed by resolution their horror and detestation of the act, and at the hour of his burial they gathered in their chapel and stood silent, with bowed heads, during the five minutes when business and industry all over the country were suspended.

WILL ST. LOUIS REDEEM HERSELF?

Following up the article which appeared in *McClure's* for October last under the title "Tweed Days in St. Louis," Mr. Lincoln Steffens contributes a paper to the March number on "The Shamelessness of St. Louis." He relates all the recent movements of the boodlers in

that city, and concludes with some pessimistic paragraphs on the supineness of the people. In April, the city votes for municipal legislators, and since the municipal assembly has been the scene of most of the corruption, it would seem that boodling would surely be an issue at that election. But Mr. Steffens hazards no prediction. He was in the city in January, and states that at that time the politicians were planning to keep this issue out of the election, their scheme being to combine on one ticket,—that is to say, each group of leaders was to nominate half the nominees, who were to be on the same ticket, making no contest at all, and, "to avoid suspicion, these nominations were to be exceptionally,—yes, remarkably,—good."

ANOTHER CHAPTER OF THE STANDARD OIL.

Miss Ida M. Tarbell continues her narrative of the successive steps by which the Standard Oil Trust was built up on the ruins of its competitors. In the main, it is a story of quiet absorption of the independent refineries by the Standard, with occasional episodes like that of the Pennsylvania's fight. The period covered in this installment includes the years 1874-78. So strong had the monopoly become at this time that there was an almost superstitious fear of resistance to any proposals to lease or to sell that might come from it. A proposal from Mr. Rockefeller was regarded popularly as little better than a command to "stand and deliver."

- THE COSMOPOLITAN.

IN the March *Cosmopolitan*, Col. Avery D. Andrews, formerly one of the New York City police commissioners, writes an account of his recent observations on the police systems of Europe. Comparing the cities of London, Paris, and New York, Colonel Andrews finds that the proportion of police to population is 1 to every 307 in Paris, 1 to every 408 in London, and 1 to every 458 in New York. Comparing proportions of police to areas, he finds that in Paris there are 266 policemen to each square mile, in London 23 to each square mile, and New York 25. The great area of the metropolitan police district of London contains many rural communities, as does the present metropolitan district of New York, and perhaps a comparison with Paris is hardly fair.

THE SELECTION OF A HOME.

Prof. Clarence A. Martin, of Cornell University, contributes a paper dealing with the somewhat complex problem of the location of a home. It is clearly brought out in Professor Martin's article that, other things being equal, his preference is decidedly for elevated building sites. He has scant patience with those people who, appreciating neither sanitary science nor art in the location of a home, have built their houses on low, flat, sodden plains, "with the low-water mark anywhere from two to six feet below the surface of the earth, and the high-water mark anywhere from the surface of the lawns to the level of the first floor." Professor Martin mentions a city,—which we take to be Ithaca, N. Y., the seat of Cornell University,—which, he says, is surrounded by fine building sites with perfect drainage, commanding magnificent views over miles of hills, lake, and valley, well shaded by good forest trees of oak, maple, elm, pine, and hemlock, which had been to a good extent neglected by the people who it might be supposed would be the first to choose them. The lots are not only much larger than those in the valley, but

cost in the open market considerably less. What Professor Martin says of this city is undoubtedly true of hundreds of American towns and villages. Most of the people prefer to live in the valleys.

VON LENBACH, THE PAINTER.

A sketch of von Lenbach, the Bavarian artist who painted numerous portraits of Bismarck, is contributed by Louise Parks Richards. Von Lenbach, it seems, became a member of the Bismarck family circle. "Hitherto Bismarck had been an almost impossible man to the approach of a painter, his restless energies precluding the possibility of posing for an artist except in the most exceptional cases. The rapid strokes of von Lenbach, however, dissipated his antipathy against the ordeal of sitting. Besides, the open, unabashed, independent personality of the artist interested him."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen (2d) writes on "Beauty in the Modern Chorus." Mrs. Wilson Woodrow on "The Woman of Fifty," and President Charles F. Thwing on the profession of insurance. The second of Lord Wolseley's studies of the young Napoleon, and a chapter of Herbert G. Wells' on "Mankind in the Making," devoted to the subject of schooling, are other features of this number. We have quoted elsewhere from a sketch of Mr. James B. Dill, by William J. Boies.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

MR. EARL MAYO'S article on "The Tobacco War," in the March *Frank Leslie's*, is quoted from in another department. The number opens with an account of the discoveries made by the government scientific expeditions aboard the U. S. S. *Albatross* by W. E. Meehan. A dramatic incident was the deep-sea soundings about one hundred miles from Guam, where the tough wire rope went down 28,878 feet before touching bottom. This is just about the height of Mount Everest,—about five and a half miles. Mr. Meehan tells of extraordinary finds of manganese on the red-clay bottom of the Pacific. This valuable mineral occurs in a pure state, in the form of nodules and disks, some of them as large as cannon balls.

Mr. Frederick Street gives a description of the "Dis-mal Swamp," the vast waste of spongy, thickly overgrown black soil that begins within twenty miles of Norfolk, Va., and extends twenty-five miles into North Carolina. This interesting wilderness was the favorite refuge of runaway slaves during and before the war, and it is still the best chance for escaped criminals. Its eight hundred square miles of area is as inaccessible and little known as in the days of Washington, who laid out a route through it. In the center of the wilderness is Lake Drummond, three miles long and two miles wide. The waterways flowing from this pond offer the only means of access to the heart of the swamp. A company has been formed to reclaim a large portion of this waste area.

LIPPINCOTT'S.

E BEN E. REXFORD contributes to *Lippincott's* for March, which is largely a fiction number, a brief, practical article on "Rural and Village Improvement Societies," his object being to show some of the benefits brought about by local-improvement societies and the means by which they can be realized. "Indi-

vidual effort," he says, "is the great factor of success in an undertaking of this kind. Improvement, like charity, should begin at home before it undertakes the broader work of the community." He advocates the planting of our native trees and shrubs on the village lots, gives the preference to hardy plants for decorating the home grounds, and lays especial stress on the lawn.

In her paper on "Intellectual Communism," Sara Yorke Stevenson dilates on the tax levied upon public men, and men and women in general who have achieved distinction of some kind, in the shape of requests to give opinions or advice, or to deliver addresses on the most heterogeneous subjects. She denounces the prevalent practice of indiscriminate public speaking, not only as a wasteful drain upon the intellectual energy of the speaker, but as tending to induce superficiality both in the speaker and the listeners.

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

THE most noteworthy article in *Everybody's Magazine* for March is Chalmers Roberts' paper on "Joseph Chamberlain: A Study of the Man and His Place in English Politics." A career like Chamberlain's could be possible only in England, "where it seems the accepted thing that a man's age shall thoroughly contradict his youth. He was first of all a pronounced Little Englander, opposed to all manner of expansion. In the late seventies, he bitterly opposed the Zulu war against Cetewayo. He opposed the policy of a confederated British South Africa. A year or two later, he was denouncing the British occupation of Egypt. In regard to the Transvaal, he strongly opposed annexation in 1877, but he was bound to accept it upon entering office with Gladstone, as the British foreign policy is supposed to be continuous.

When he accepted the colonial secretaryship, his imperialistic tendencies were already well developed. The growth of the feeling for a united empire "can be traced in a long series of acts of the colonial secretary, beginning further back than the great council of colonial premiers, which he originated and over which he presided so successfully during the Diamond Jubilee, through the war for the support of the colony in South Africa, so wonderfully upheld by the sister colonies, down to the consummation of Australian federation." Mr. Chamberlain "does not shine conspicuously as a diplomatist. He has in the last few years successfully angered almost every Continental nation, and is hated accordingly. But he always has a good word for the United States, and has done his best to see that good feeling is maintained between the two countries."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Stephen French Whitman contributes a picturesque paper on the elephant-catchers of India. Elizabeth Robbins Pennell writes entertainingly on English culinary art in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. J. W. Ogden describes the "River Gamblers of Old Steamboat Days." Lillian Pettengill, a graduate of Mount Holyoke College, has the first of four articles, "Toilers of the Home," describing her experiences as a domestic servant. Interested in social questions, she undertook to "look upon the ups and downs of this particular dog-life from the dog's end of the chain." "The Autobiography of a Life Assurance Man" is the personal narrative of the vice-president of one of the largest life assurance companies. Booker T. Washing-

ton has the fifth installment of his autobiographical paper, "Work with the Hands," describing the manual work at Tuskegee.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the March *Atlantic*, President Arthur T. Hadley continues his discussion, begun last month, of "Academic Freedom in Theory and in Practice." So far from accepting the view that higher education must be controlled by the state in order to secure freedom of teaching, President Hadley holds that "the tendency to jeopardize the freedom of the teacher is probably more conspicuous among State universities than among endowed ones." It is conceded that the placing of the administration of the university in the hands of an independent board, as is done in many States, is a far better method than more direct control by governor or legislature; but, says President Hadley, "if the board is really independent, you have put the possibility of control as fully out of your hands as if it were a private corporation; and if you have not made it thus independent, you have the pretense of freedom without the reality."

A WORLD-LEGISLATURE.

The occasions for international conferences on various matters have been so frequent of late that Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman is able to make an argument of no little force and plausibility in favor of a world-legislature. He maintains that, as a matter of self-interest, the nations must soon have a permanent legislative body as a means of establishing regulations for the benefit of all. World-legislation has already occurred repeatedly, although no world-legislature has been organized. Special meetings have been held for special purposes. The only instance of absolute world-legislation thus far is that of the International Postal Union. The establishment of the Hague Court of Arbitration may also be regarded as an act of world-legislation, so far as the signatory nations were concerned. Mr. Bridgman's proposition involves the organization of a permanent system for dealing with all such international problems as now require the convening of separate bodies of delegates.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES.

Mr. George C. Sikes, writing on the question of franchises, emphasizes, as the most important feature of sound municipal policy, the retention by the public authorities of the right to terminate the grant at any time, in case the public interests render such action desirable, with full assurance to the grantee that his property will be taken off his hands at a fair valuation.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Captain Mahan contributes a broadly philosophical paper on "The Writing of History," and an excellent *résumé* of recent nature books is given by Mr. John Burroughs, under the title, "Real and Sham Natural History." The story of "Santa Teresa" is charmingly retold by Annie Fields.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE Monroe Doctrine—Its Origin and Import," is the subject of an article in the February *North American* by the Hon. William L. Scruggs, formerly the United States minister to Venezuela and to Colombia. In concluding a somewhat elaborate historical review of the subject, Mr. Scruggs asserts that

the principles of the Monroe Doctrine are "precedents as old as our government itself. They have been sanctified by unbroken usage, and have given direction to our foreign policy for more than a century. Every one of our Presidents, from the first to the present, who has ever had occasion to refer to it, has specifically reaffirmed it. Every one of the Latin-American republics has, at one time or another, and in some form or other, affirmatively supported it. Not one of the European powers has ever entered formal protest against it; on the contrary, all have acquiesced in it, and thus tacitly assented to it. It is, therefore, a valid part of the public law of this continent; and until abandoned by us, or until formally challenged by Europe, or until modified or abrogated by public treaty, it will continue to be recognized as part of the modern international code of the Christian world."

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DRAMATIC ART.

Concerning "The Art of the Dramatist," Prof. Brander Matthews says: "The drama is an art which has developed slowly and steadily, and which is still alive; its history has the same essential unity, the same continuity, that we are now beginning to see more clearly in the history of the whole world. Its principles, like the principles of every other art, are eternal and unchanging, whatever strange aspects the art may assume."

AGAINST THE ARMY CANTEN.

Mrs. Lillian M. N. Stevens, president of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, replies to Dr. Seaman's argument for the restoration of the post canteen, from which we quoted in our February number. Mrs. Stevens cites the opinions of many army officers in support of her contention that the abolition of the canteen was a good thing. She declares that temperance advocates are well pleased with the result, thus far, of the non-beer exchange, but that the eighteen months' trial has been under the most unfavorable circumstances. Furthermore, substitutes for the canteen have not been established. No use has been made of the half-million dollars appropriated by Congress a year ago for libraries, amusement buildings, etc. These should have a trial before a decision to restore the canteen is reached.

THE INDUSTRIAL CRISIS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Brewster Cameron, who represents the Philippine chambers of commerce, makes a strong argument for the establishment of the gold standard in the archipelago and for a further temporary reduction of the Dingley tariff. The fluctuations of the Mexican dollar have already caused enormous losses to the Government and to individual business men. As a concrete example of individual losses, Mr. Cameron cites the case of a prominent contractor at Manila who took a contract to build a hospital for a stipulated price in Mexican silver, to be paid upon the completion of the work. During the time necessarily occupied in the construction of the building, the depreciation of Mexican silver was so great that he lost \$22,000, Mexican. Mr. Cameron urges the prompt adoption by Congress of the plans for currency reform embodied in Secretary Root's report for 1901. The disasters that have befallen the islands in the form of the rinderpest plague and the famine demand the immediate reduction of the tariff, as proposed in the bill that has already passed the House of Representatives. As a further measure of relief, Mr. Cameron calls for the repeal of the law of Congress limiting the

ownership of land by corporations to 2,500 acres, on the ground that this restriction hinders the agricultural development of the islands.

THE KING OF ITALY.

Mr. Sydney Brooks estimates King Victor Emmanuel III. as "a really strong king, who will not only lead, but control; who will not hesitate to command when suggestions fail, and who will see to it that his commands are obeyed." The powers intrusted to an Italian king, according to Mr. Brooks, are equivalent to those of an American President and an English premier combined; they are held for life, and no Italian Parliament would ever oppose the will of a popular ruler.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a deeply sympathetic appreciation of Phillips Brooks by the Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden. The discussion of the alleged lawlessness of the New York police in breaking into private houses is continued by Justice W. J. Gaynor and Assistant District Attorney Howard S. Gans. In our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," we have quoted at some length from Mr. Thomas F. Ryan's article on "The Political Opportunity of the South," and from Mr. Charles Johnston's interesting account of "Macedonia's Struggle for Liberty."

HISTORICAL QUARTERLIES.

TWO of the articles in the *American Historical Review* for January—the current issue—are concerned with the Protestant Reformation of the sixteenth century; there is an admirable survey of the literature of the Lutheran movement in Germany by Prof. James Harvey Robinson, while Prof. Herbert D. Foster writes on "Geneva Before Calvin (1387-1536): The Antecedents of a Puritan State."

Of the papers bearing directly on phases of American history, Mr. L. D. Scisco contributes a study of "The Plantation Type of Colony" and Mr. George H. Alden gives an instructive and highly interesting account of "The State of Franklin," that frontier government of our Revolutionary era which was maintained for three years in defiance of North Carolina and the other States of the federation.

In the department of "Documents" are presented letters, hitherto unpublished, of Gov. William Bradford and his assistant, Isaac Allerton, dated 1623, and of Samuel Cooper to Thomas Pownall (1769-77).

A NEW JOURNAL FROM IOWA.

The State Historical Society of Iowa (Iowa City) has brought out the first number of the *Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, to be issued quarterly, under the editorship of Dr. Benjamin F. Shambaugh, of the University of Iowa. Four contributed articles appear in this first issue—"Joliet and Marquette in Iowa," by Prof. L. G. Weld; "The Political Value of State Constitutional History," by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe; "Historico-Anthropological Possibilities in Iowa," by the Rev. D. J. H. Ward; and "A General Survey of the Literature of Iowa History," by Johnson Brigham. There are also book reviews and a department of "Notes and Comment." The magazine is clearly printed, on good paper, and presents a dignified appearance. Such publications indicate a widespread interest in history on the part of our State societies.

JOURNALS OF ECONOMICS, POLITICS, AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.

THE *American Journal of Sociology* (January; bimonthly) opens with an illustrated article by Samuel MacClintock entitled "Around the Island of Cebú on Horseback." This writer, who is the principal of the Cebú Normal School, is impressed by the eagerness of the natives, old and young, to learn the English language and familiarize themselves with American institutions.

Mr. A. J. Roewade describes some of the advanced methods adopted by European countries in the management of public and quasi-public institutions as related to transportation and commerce,—notably the railroads, harbors, and markets.

An experiment in social fraternity successfully conducted in San Francisco by Miss Octavine Briggs, a visiting nurse, is described by Katherine A. Chandler. Miss Briggs rented a house in a crowded street, where her work was centered, and in that house she proceeded to establish an artistic and dainty home, where the demands of refinement and culture were fully met, and where representatives of all the social classes were invited to meet on a common plane and discuss topics of human interest. Miss Briggs' enterprise is in no way a rival of "settlement" work, but offers the more intimate home influence in the neighborhood.

Prof. Albion W. Small returns to the vexed question, What is a "sociologist?" Not every man, says Professor Small, who deals with facts of society is a sociologist, any more than every tinker and blacksmith is a physicist, or every cook and soap-maker a chemist, or every gardener and stock-breeder a biologist. A sociologist, on the other hand, is a man who is studying the facts of society in the spirit of a philosopher. The worst enemy of the sociologists, in Professor Small's opinion, is "defect of scientific patience." "Itch to be talked about, without having made any real contribution to knowledge, is the stigma of the pseudo-scientist."

Writing on "The Social Effects of the Eight-Hour Day," Prof. Frank L. McVey says, in conclusion:

"The eight-hour day will promote contentment and cheerfulness among the working people of the world. The economic value of this change is yet to be appreciated, but there can be no doubt of its great productive power when applied to industry. Under its influence, the old rate of daily production will be maintained, with little or no effect in the long run upon wages, profits, the unemployed, and foreign commerce."

"ANNALS" OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY.

In the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (bimonthly; January) there is an interesting account by Mr. John W. Converse of the labor system at the Baldwin Locomotive Works. Interesting features of the Baldwin works are the unit system of production, the piecework-payment system, and the apprenticeship system.

Mr. A. E. Outerbridge, Jr., writes on "The Premium System of Wage Payment," described in a recent number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* by Mr. H. L. Gantt.

Analyzing "The Effect of Unionism Upon the Mine Worker," Mr. Frank Julian Warne concludes that such an organization as the United Mine Workers of America is the only force that can give the mine workers a standard of living conformable to American conditions.

Mr. Edward S. Meade sets forth the investment aspect of the anthracite controversy. He declares that if the miners obtain even half of their original demands, two of the five coal corporations concerned are in danger of severe losses, and the dividends of the other three, at least for some time to come, may have to be reduced. The controversy, in short, is not between the corporation and the miner, but between the miners and the investors.

Other interesting topics covered in this number are "Labor Unions as They Appear to an Employer," by W. H. Pfahler; "The Evolution of Negro Labor," by Carl Kelsey; and "The Labor Situation in Mexico," by Walter E. Weyl.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February number of *Gunton's* there is an interesting article on "Symptomatic Parties" by Mr. Henry W. Wilbur. Reviewing the returns of the Socialist vote at the last elections, this writer takes the ground that while Populism and Greenbackism in our political history were symptoms of adversity, socialism is a symptom of prosperity not satisfactorily diffused. "The exigencies of the coal strike, and certain matters connected therewith, have wonderfully though differently impressed all classes of society, and have intensified the prejudices of the superficial and the poorly informed to a marked degree. Baer's doctrine of the divine right of the holders of capital to possess the earth without a doubt helped to increase the followers of the symptomatic party of 1902. The lesson which the believers in the evolution of society rather than its revolution must learn is plain. It is the lesson of justice and enlarged opportunity for the masses of men, no matter what may be their part in the world's work."

UNCLE SAM'S STRONG-BOX.

In Mr. Julius Moritzen's article on the new mint at Philadelphia the safeguards of the great money vaults are described. In the old mint, occasional visitors were granted admission to these vaults, but now not even the mint officials, except those directly connected with this department, are permitted to enter. The vaults are said to be the largest and most perfect of their kind in the world. "Each is protected by a set of three doors. Of these, the outer door is of a ball-bearing construction in use nowhere else. The four combination locks, and the immensely thick armor plate of which the doors are made, are proof against whatever attack. The vaults, in fact, are invulnerable.

"Further safety in the mint is guaranteed through the complete electric-clock system. There are thirty of these time-pieces scattered throughout the building, besides forty others connecting with a master-clock. Fifty-one telephones, an ink-writing telegraph register, which indicates an alarm from any or all of the thirty-five alarm boxes, and the wonderful switchboard on which are mounted the fuse block, fire-alarm recorder, American District and Western Union call-boxes, the police telegraph and city fire-alarm boxes, are features of protection and convenience no other mint can boast."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE most fascinating paper in the *Contemporary* for February is Ashton Hillaire's "Vision of a Great Fight Between the English and the Danes," in old times, in Berkshire. It is supposed to represent what

he saw when he fell asleep in church, one Sunday, in the country. It is written with extraordinary *verve* and vividness, as if he had really seen the whole battle in a clairvoyant trance. This, indeed, he declares he did, although this may, of course, be merely a pretense; but, speaking of the fight, he says: "One thing is sure. I was there. Some inherited molecule of gray cerebral matter responded to some local stimulus and repeated its thousand-years-old experience."

THE NATIVE PROBLEM IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. Alfred A. Macullah writes very wisely concerning the difficulties of dealing with the black, and still more with the half-breed, population of South Africa. He says: "To be thoroughly taught the lesson that the first duty of man in the world is to work, is the chief instruction necessary for the natives." But he is not contented with this,—his idea is to transport gradually all the colored population to the north of the Zambesi, where he would found "a great native state regulated by British officials after the manner of India;" by this arrangement, "those parts of South Africa which are now dwelt in permanently by the white man cannot be given back to the black man; but the latter should at least be encouraged to withdraw into those parts farther north which are still his own under the ægis of the British power."

THE VALUE OF AN ENGLISH UNIVERSITY DEGREE.

Sir William Ramsey says:

"In this country, the manufacturer looks askance on the applicant for a post who possesses a degree. He has found by experience that the training which the young man has received is of little value in implanting in him the qualities required for success in the world."

There must, therefore, he argues, be something wrong in the training. He pleads "for a conservative reaction,—a reaction which shall carry us back to the golden age, when master and pupil worked together for the acquisition and production of knowledge. I have tried to show that this is the aim of America and our Continental neighbors; that our present examination system is incompatible with such an aim; that it offers to a student a wrong goal; that it strains him at a critical period of his life, exciting him to a succession of fitful spurts, instead of to a calm, steady progression."

HOPE FOR THE JEWS IN ROUMANIA.

Mr. Bernard Lazare, after describing the various legislative methods by which the Jews are being driven out of Roumania, predicts that the remedy will be brought about by economic causes.

"The class of Roumanians who could be substituted for the Jews does not exist, either as traders or workmen. If Jewish emigration proceeds any faster, it will create gaps which it will be impossible to fill. The Roumanian peasant will have no more grocers, wheelwrights, tile-makers, masons, etc. The landowner will see the income from his property go down,—it has already diminished 23 per cent. in certain villages; a mass of small Roumanian traders who depend entirely on the Jew will in their turn be ruined; the Wallachian boyars will feel the injury with the departure of the last Jewish middlemen; the excise revenues will further decrease, and the state will be obliged to reduce more and more the number of official appointments; indeed, it is already being done. Roumania will be like the cities and nations of the Middle Ages,—after having driven out the Jews, she will send for them

back again, and by all sorts of concessions she will endeavor to retain in her land the remnant which will have remained of the Jewish settlement."

RAILWAYS IN CHINA.

Mr. D. C. Boulger writes in very good spirits concerning the prospects of British railway enterprise in China. "British railway enterprise in China, after a long halt, is, therefore, about to make a practical start under favorable financial conditions. With the Shanghai-Nanking railway, a new departure will be made. We shall have, in the first place, a solid token of the magnitude of British interests in China. It will be something definite for the government to protect in that Yangtse Valley over which it has watched so long. It is certain to prove a most successful line in its commercial aspect. If any Chinese railway is to earn brilliant dividends, it will certainly be that traversing the thickly populated province of Kiangsu."

THE MECHANISM OF THE AIR.

The Rev. J. M. Bacon explains a theory which he has formed as the result of his study of the air currents.

"The atmosphere has been well compared to a vast engine of which the furnace is maintained by the sun's rays which traverse it, the boiler being the moist earth or the cloud-masses on which the heat of those rays is spent, while the condensing apparatus is supplied by the action of the earth's radiation into space."

His theory is that the heated air always ascends in eddies and bubbles. He gives many interesting details in support of this theory. He says:

"A veritable dust ocean lies over towns, often of great depth, yet always having a definite limit above which it is possible to climb and there to find one's self in a pure sky of extraordinary transparency and deepest blue."

In this lofty region, the rays of the sun seem to have no power; in very hot summer weather, the thermometer registered 29 degrees below zero when the balloon had ascended to the height of 27,000 feet.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Foreman pays a parting tribute to Señor Sagasta. Dr. Dillon writes on Macedonia, Venezuela, and the Dardanelles. A writer named "Togatus" pleads for a more intelligible method of presenting the army estimates to the House of Commons.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly* for February opens with an anonymous paper on "Lord Kitchener and the Indian Army," in which Lord Rosebery is taken to task for underestimating the importance of the Indian command, which the writer maintains will require all Lord Kitchener's administrative and organizing powers. After this follows an analysis of the various departments of the Indian army which require revision, the writer's conclusion being that, though progress in many directions has lately been made, the organization is still much behind the times in a military sense. He insists that the main purpose of the Indian army is not to maintain internal order, but to repel the inevitable Russian invasion.

ENGLAND'S FOOD-SUPPLY IN WAR.

Admiral Fremantle contributes a few pages on this subject, in which he restates the problem without add-

ing anything new to it. He says that no remedy will be effective which does not provide for more of the food being grown at home. If England grew as much wheat as in 1854, she would be enabled to give half rations without importing any food from abroad. As for the navy, she would need 350 cruisers of all classes, whereas she has now only 190. Admiral Fremantle thinks that if the reserves were properly developed there would be enough men to man all these ships.

"It is enough to remark that even a second or third class cruiser cannot be built under two years, while a fair seaman gunner can be trained in six months or less to shoot straight; and surely, with our 122,000 active-service naval ratings, we should be able to afford a nucleus of experienced long-service men-of-war's men."

THE BLUEJACKET-MECHANIC.

"Excubitor," in a paper entitled "Admiral-Engineer and Bluejacket-Mechanic," says:

"The manning of British men-of-war is an anachronism. It is an absurdity that over one-fifth of the crew of the *Hogue* and her sisters should have no special qualification for taking their parts in an action. The time has come when the old system of training and manning must be revised and radically amended so as to suit better the ships of war of to-day, which are highly complex workshops for killing an enemy, and should be provided, not with old-fashioned seamen, with their lore of a bygone art, but with bluejacket-mechanics,—men who are really handy men, able to turn their hand to anything in day of battle, use the bit, handle a chisel, or work with dexterity with a hammer. In short, every officer and man in his majesty's fleet must have some knowledge of the mechanical arrangements on which the fighting efficiency of each ship depends. Many of the mechanical ratings in the fleet are taught how to use the cutlass and rifle; why, then, should not the seamen of the navy be given a limited mechanical training, so as to enable them to become in reality 'handy men' in the rough-and-tumble of battle, when much of the incidental work, which in peace is done by the specialist, will have to be performed by others, either in consequence of casualties among the specialist or because their hands will be too full to enable them to respond to all the calls upon them?"

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. L. Bashford writes appreciatively of the German merchant marine. Father Maher deals with Mr. Mallock's attack upon him, maintaining that Mr. Mallock has misstated his arguments. There are four pages by Maeterlinck entitled "Field Flowers," a miracle play by the Hon. Mrs. Anstruther, and several literary papers.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE *Quarterly Review* for January publishes no fewer than three signed articles, one of which is illustrated. The signed articles are, however, not the most important or interesting.

SOUTH AMERICAN ANIMALS.

The illustrated paper is Mr. F. Ameghino's essay on "South American Animals and Their Origin." In this paper he gives an account both of living animals and of those that have long since been dead. His pictures show extinct monsters, giant sloths, and other mammals which, happily for mankind, are only to be found

in a fossil state. There is a picture of a giant bird which had a skull as large and as heavy as that of a horse. Mr. Ameghino thinks that South America was at one time connected by isthmuses,—or land bridges, as he calls them,—with Australasia on one side and Africa on the other. He inclines to believe that the ancestors of the South American hoofed mammals must be sought in Africa.

EMILE ZOLA.

Twenty-four pages are devoted to an appreciation of the life and work of Emile Zola. The reviewer is not by any means a mere eulogist of an author who, he complains, represented man exclusively as a huddled unit of a herd of beasts; nevertheless, he admits the intense moral purpose of his writings, and he admits that he has an assured title to fame and immortality for his immense imaginative power. In spite of all his efforts, the poet is constantly discovering himself; the prodigious power of his imagination is unlimited,—it is unparalleled in its continuity and its steadfastness. "We feel confident that his work will survive for its splendid poetical imagery and vision, and that his name will be remembered as that of one who on a great occasion, at the cost of all he held dear, chivalrously raised his voice on behalf of the oppressed, and recalled his country to a sense of justice."

A CONSPECTUS OF SCIENCE.

Sir Michael Foster writes an article under this head which is chiefly devoted to an account of the "International Catalogue of Scientific Literature." This catalogue consists of seventeen closely packed volumes, which are devoted to an index of the scientific publications of a single year. The entries are exclusively confined to papers containing the results of original investigation. The catalogue takes no notice of any book or paper which is not in some way a record of an original scientific discovery, observation, method, or idea. Speaking of the catalogue, Sir Michael Foster says: "As the first fruits of a combined international effort to provide a ready practical analysis of the current scientific literature of the whole world, such as can be used by any man of science, wherever he dwells and whatever be the language he speaks, the volumes possess an interest which reaches beyond science and men of science, and deserve consideration from more points of view than one."

UNIVERSITY REFORM IN INDIA.

The writer of this article describes the recommendations of the university commission which reported last year. The writer advocates the replacing of the universities under European control, and the disuse of their entrance examination as a test for the government service. The central part of the proposed reforms is that the English teachers, or their representatives, should have due control over their own work.

"Inadequate pay, insufficient arrangements for pensions, the inferiority, in the public estimation, of the 'uncovenanted' services to the civil service and the army,—these and other disadvantages mark the grudging recognition which the English mind, especially the official English mind, is apt to pay to the cause of education. . . . It is time that we gave of our best educators, still young and keen and sympathetic, to train her youth in wisdom and strength of character. Side by side with the Indian staff corps and the Indian civil service, we need to establish an Indian educational service, equally honored, as its work is equally honorable ;

for the teacher, no less than the soldier or the councilor, has his share in the high responsibilities of empire."

THE REFORM OF THE PORT OF LONDON.

Even the *Quarterly Review* feels constrained to take up its parable against the scandalous way in which the City Corporation has neglected the welfare of the port of London. The writer strongly advocates the formation of a unified authority, or trust, which should be subsidized by the County Council and the City Corporation. Of the 112 courts of the United Kingdom, the municipality has complete control in 22 and more or less control in 66. The reviewer believes that the port-authority will apply, before long, for a provisional order exempting all ships within the port from compulsory pilotage. He also expects that the provision and maintenance of lighthouses will be kept up by the state, as is the case on all other civilized coasts. The abolition of lighthouse dues and compulsory pilotage will reconcile ship-owners to the increased port charges which they will have to pay in the future.

THE FALLIBILITY OF THE BIBLE.

The writer of an article entitled "New Testament Criticism" takes as his starting-point the following statement of the results following the establishment of the antiquity of the human race on earth :

"The statements of fact which the Bible contains are not, by the mere fact that they stand in the Bible, stamped with the divine guarantee of truth. The biblical history may still compare, and we believe that it does compare, very favorably indeed, as history, with the annals of antiquity generally. But on grounds wholly prior to any critical question whatever, it has become impossible to claim that the Bible, in whatever sense divinely inspired, was produced under conditions which elevate it in all respects above the limitations to which everything written by man is subject ; impossible to rule out of court any conclusion of criticism on the sole ground of its collision with categorical words of Holy Scripture."

The reviewer then proceeds to examine the net results of textual and higher criticism in dealing with the New Testament.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The other articles are very considerable and of widely varied literary interest. The articles on "The Queen of the 'Blue-stockings'" and "Diarists of the Last Century" contain a great deal of interesting gossip concerning the world of letters and politics in the last two hundred years. Julia Ady writes enthusiastically about "The Early Art of the Netherlands." "The old Flemish masters," she says, "foremost among painters recognized the greatness and wonder of man and nature ; they were whole-hearted artists, and they attained a degree of finish and brilliancy which has never been surpassed." The review of Mr. Sydney Lee's "Life of Queen Victoria" is disappointing ; the *Quarterly* has accustomed us to better articles than this on the subject of the late Queen. The article on "Recent Sport and Travel" covers a wide field. The paper on the "Game of Speculation" is noticed elsewhere.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

IN the *Edinburgh Review* for January, the political article entitled "Foreign Politics and Common Sense" passes in review the efforts which are being made to excite ill-feeling against Germany and other countries, and concludes with the following observation :

"In the nearer East, the middle East, and the farther East, existing conditions give rise to very troublesome problems, and troublesome problems are not confined to Asia. Mr. Balfour hopes and believes that the statesmanship of Europe will be found equal to their satisfactory solution. It will greatly assist the efforts of statesmen if the public of the rival countries can manage to retain a sense of proportion in discussing foreign politics. The real questions of the future are of the deepest importance; why, then, should every trumpety vexatious incident that may make discord between nations be employed to exasperate against each other those whose friendly dispositions are essential to the future peace of the world?"

THE PROGRESS OF MEDICINE SINCE 1803.

This paper is a painstaking, not particularly brilliant, survey of the advance that has been made in the healing art within the last hundred years. Anesthetics, antiseptics, antitoxin, are the three great divisions under which these improvements are marshaled, and to these must be added the X ray, the light treatment for lupus, and the discovery of the part which the mosquito plays in malarial fever.

HENRY JAMES AS A NOVELIST.

Henry James, who was born in 1843 and published his first tale in 1866, has been describing his impressions for thirty-six years, in the course of which he has written thirty-four books. The reviewer praises him very highly, but, he says:

"He knows so intimately the human heart, he has unraveled such a complexity of human motive, yet he has only once painted in woman an overmastering passion, and his analyses of motive have taught us chiefly how much we do not know. He has shirked no segment of the social circle, he has painted the magnificence and the pathetic meagerness of existence, yet he has scarcely drawn across one of his pages the sense of its struggle,—that endless groan of labor which is the ground bass of life."

But, nevertheless and notwithstanding, the reviewer concludes by saying:

"If he has dropped a line but rarely into the deep waters of life, his soundings have so added to our knowledge of its shallows that no student of existence can afford to ignore his charts."

EMILE ZOLA.

The article on Zola is chiefly devoted to an analysis and criticism of his three books on his three cities—*Lourdes*, *Rome*, and *Paris*. The art of Zola was that of a scene-painter, strong and vivid, his reproductions of places were lifelike, and his "*Rome*" is the very best guide-book that has ever been written even for *Rome*. His instinct for the nauseous bordered on genius, and it was equaled by his skill in presenting it. An immense pity for mankind filled him; the beauty and the

joy of the world escaped him; he saw only its reverse side,—its cruelty, its wretchedness, and its pain. His talent was that of a supremely clever journalist,—he never could get away from the standpoint of the average man. In his trilogy of three cities he embodied his philosophy and set forth his criticism of life. He saw things for the most part on the surface, and the impression left is one of superficiality and limitation. Nevertheless, the reviewer is constrained to pay a tribute of praise to Zola, whose immortal honor it is that in the Dreyfus case, in the eternal battle between light and darkness, he struck unhesitatingly and without flinching the side of light.

A PLEA FOR FACTORY LEGISLATION.

An article entitled "*The Past and Future of Factory Legislation*" leads up to the following conclusion:

"We all see now that the bodily and mental health and vigor of the industrial classes form an asset of priceless value in the fierce and ever-intensifying economic struggle between Britain and her eager and powerful rivals. We know, or may obtain the knowledge, how to preserve and develop that asset, so far as it depends on industrial conditions. If as a nation we do not avail ourselves of the means thus ready to our hands,—if we do not give our best help toward the extension and realization of the best intentions of our Parliament for the preservation and enhancement of the economic efficiency of the people,—we shall certainly not deserve to escape from the consequences which such apathy and self-indulgence must inevitably entail."

MODERN MOTOR CARS.

The reviewer says that steam is the best for heavy work in a hilly district, but in the hands of a novice the steam motor has the greatest possibility of accident. An electric motor is the best for town work, but it is restricted to a range of thirty or forty miles. The petrol car is least liable to accident, its range is two hundred miles, and its great defects are noise, smell, and vibration. The reviewer pleads for greater elasticity by permitting higher speeds on country roads, and urges that a departmental committee or a royal commission should be appointed to provide a basis for legislation and to advise as to the best method of reforming the existing system of highway administration.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The article on "*Panslavism in the Near East*" is chiefly interesting for the account which it gives of the operations of the Imperial Palestine Society and the opposition offered to Russian propaganda by Turks, Greeks, Jews, French, Italians, Germans, English, and Americans. The first article is devoted to the account of the blockade of Brest at the beginning of the last century. The article on "*Double Stars*" will be chiefly interesting to astronomers.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

LA REVUE.

"*LA REVUE*" for January keeps up its reputation as the most actual of French monthly publications. The number for January 1 opens with a long unsigned article on the great crisis in the French Church, in which the repeated warnings which we have lately had as to the danger of disruption within the Church are repeated. During four or five years, there

have been annually two hundred secessions of priests from the French Church, while the number who remain, but who would fain secede, is innumerable. These priests remain in the Church, not because they have kept the faith, but for fear of misery and hunger. This writer says: "This I affirm because I know it, because my desk is full of letters of pitiful confidence on this subject, and because I receive, constantly, visits from

priests who come to confide in me their distress." And Italy is in the same way as France "a prey to the spirit of independence and revolt."

La Revue also publishes the second installment of Count Tolstoy's "Political Science and Money," in which the count denounces money as "the new and terrible form of personal slavery which depraves slave and master." M. Finot contributes a short but interesting paper on "Thuggee in India," under the title of "The Religion of Murder," and announces the republication in book form of his series, of which this article forms part, entitled "Among the Saints and the Possessed."

Kammerer contributes a paper on the Republic of Andorra. Andorra is under the joint suzerainty of France and of the Spanish Bishop of Seo d'Urgel. The inhabitants seem to live chiefly by contrabandage, and in other respects to be models of virtue. They have no prisons, and send their criminals to France for incarceration. The capital of the republic contains only 600 inhabitants, and the president draws a salary of only 160 francs a year. There are no roads in the country, nobody worth more than \$10,000, and the taxes *per capita* amount to 25 centimes per annum.

In the number for January 15, M. de Norvins continues his illustrated papers on "The Trust Mania," and M. L. de Persigny writes on the famous Ems dispatch which precipitated the war of 1870-71. M. Camille Melinaud writes on "The Idea of Punishment as a Moral Prejudice," concluding that reward and punishment must come from within and not from without. Wickedness does not deserve suffering, nor virtue happiness. "The man truly wise must desire the happiness of all his kind, wicked as well as good." The same number contains a translation of the first part of one of Korolenko's characteristic stories; a paper by Emile Gautier on "The Philosophy of Digestion;" and an article by A. de Roy on "George Sand, Liszt, and Chopin."

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

THE *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January is not very rich in articles of general interest. We have noticed elsewhere M. de Fonville's paper on aerial navigation, and Mme. Carlier's journal, kept during the Armenian massacres.

M. Pierre Loti continues his intensely interesting Indian articles with two papers on famine-stricken India, including Haidarabad, Golconda, Udaipur, Jaipur, and Gwalior. M. Loti almost surpasses himself in his description of Golconda, which was for three centuries one of the marvels of Asia, and of which the ruins of cyclopean grandeur must affect profoundly even the least imaginative spectator. The Indian legend is that these great blocks of masonry represent the surplus of material which God had left over when He had finished creating the world, and which He consequently tossed away, and they happened to fall here. Here lie buried the ancient kings of Golconda, and their tombs, thanks to the respect which Indians paid to death, seem to have escaped the surrounding desolation, and the funeral gardens are still piously tended. But it is useless to give a mere catalogue of what M. Loti saw. The charm and vividness of his style it is impossible to convey in any summary. Unforgettable also are his descriptions of the famine-stricken population, and of the poor little skeletons, with their great brilliant eyes, who sing the song of famine. He also draws for us with terrible vivid-

ness a picture of the loads of rice being carried past these starving wretches to the towns for the benefit of those who had money to buy the precious grains.

M. Loti went to visit the Maharajah of Meswar, and it is interesting to note that this prince, though he is building a new palace, prefers the old dwelling-place of his ancestors, so that he, at any rate, is not so much in love with Western fashions as to bear out the charge which Lord Curzon recently brought against the Indian princes as a whole.

REVUE DE PARIS.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Corday's account of "Life in a French Open-Air Cure." As regards other articles in the *Revue de Paris* for January, the amazing domination of the great Napoleon over the literary section of the twentieth-century world remains as strong as ever.

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

The editors give the place of honor in their January numbers to an account of Lucien Bonaparte, the one of Napoleon's brothers of whom the world knows comparatively little, although in some ways Lucien was the most romantic member of that wonderful family. He married for love, greatly to his brother's anger, and, further, refused, with great courage, the latter's order to him to obtain a divorce in order that he might contract a grander marriage. This proposal was the more monstrous in that Lucien had by the time been married many years, and was the father of several children, notably a very charming daughter named Charlotte. The whole story,—one which throws a very curious light on the Emperor's character, and even on that of his mother, the redoubtable Madame Mère,—is told by M. Masson, who is becoming the leading authority on the Bonaparte family. Lucien remained true to the wife of his youth, and actually took the important step of emigrating with her and their six children. The whole party started for America, being accompanied by seventeen servants, which shows that Lucien had no notion of giving up his position as brother of the great Napoleon. At Malta, however, the whole party was stopped, and M. Masson publishes a curious letter from the then Marquis of Wellesley (later Duke of Wellington), informing Lucien that the King of England would neither allow him to stop in Malta nor to go on to America, but was willing to allow him to reside in the United Kingdom. Accordingly, this plan was put into execution, and Lucien, his wife, and their children spent some time in England. Thus, the all-conquering Corsican had the humiliation of feeling, not only that he had been beaten in a family quarrel by his favorite brother, but also that the latter had been practically taken prisoner by the English.

THEOPHILE GAUTIER'S DAUGHTER.

Mme. Judith Gautier continues her charming reminiscences of her childhood and youth, and those who wish to realize what French family life is at its best, even when spent in a wholly Bohemian and literary circle, should read these pages,—the more so that there are occasionally references to men and women whose fame is world-wide. Touching and absurd, for instance, is the account of a short sojourn made by the Gautiers in London. "We once saw Thackeray; he seemed colossal and superb, and was very kind to my sister and myself. I remember that he admired the way we did our

hair, and asked us to give him details as to how the effect was produced, in order that he might tell his daughters."

OF INTEREST TO NAVAL EXPERTS.

The second number of the *Revue* opens with an anonymous paper dealing with the French navy, or, rather, with the important question as to what kind of vessel is the most valuable from a defensive and combative point of view. The writer does not believe in large men-of-war; on the other hand, he is inclined to suspect that the practical utility of submarines has been overrated, and fears that the French are about to attach to their excellent submarine fleet more importance than is wise. The paper, which is highly technical, should prove of interest to naval men of all ranks.

Other articles consist of a number of letters written in Morocco by a French officer some twelve years ago; a curious reconstitution of the life of a great Roman financier, Caius Curtius, who seems to have flourished about 50 B.C.; and an elaborate account of the relations between Germany and Venezuela as seen through French eyes before the Anglo-German alliance had been made public.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE editors of the *Nouvelle Revue* give the place of honor for January to a long and cleverly illustrated article on Madagascar, and the part taken by General Gallieni in making the island, as he claims to have done, an ideal colony. The writer of the paper claims that in this soldier France has a remarkable organizer, and certainly, if only half of what is here told is true, Gallieni may look forward to a great career at home.

IS THERE A MUSSULMAN PERIL?

Yes, says M. Pommerol, whose book is reviewed in the *Revue*. Europe has sometimes discussed the yellow peril; she should rather fear a Mohammedan peril, for even now there is much to show that the more ambitious followers of Mohammed are only biding their time to make a determined effort to reconquer North Africa and a portion of Asia. How many of us realize that there are at this moment 200,000,000 living Mohammedans, and further, that they are increasing at a rate unknown among the other great religions of the world, for Mohammed makes converts, and serious converts, not only in China and India, but also in central Africa. Many of these men are first-rate soldiers, and as time goes on they are being armed by their foreign masters with the newest engines of war.

A LACK OF CONSCRIPTS.

Yet another paper which deals indirectly with coming conflicts refers to the army of to-morrow. Even now, French military authorities are very much divided as to whether the largest army is the most efficient army. It is to be hoped, from the French point of view, that numbers do not spell strength, for every year it becomes more and more difficult to obtain sufficient recruits, every kind of excuse being brought forward; in fact, the very term "compulsory military service" is becoming, in France, a farce. And, of course, the more intelligent and the better educated the unwilling conscript be, the more easy he finds it to invent an excuse which will release him from many weary years spent in the ranks!

FINLAND: RUSSIA'S CASE.

A Russian, who does not sign his name, attempts to make his French readers understand the Russian point of view about Finland, and it must be admitted that he makes out a very good case. He points out that when Finland belonged to Sweden, Finnish patriots were quite as opposed to Swedish laws and Swedish authority as they are now to Russian, and yet now these very same people set up Swedish manners, Swedish customs, and even Swedish law, in opposition to those of their new masters; and this although in the Middle Ages, and later, Finland was far more Russian than anything else. The writer attempts to prove that the situation in Finland is much what would be that in Alsace-Lorraine were the conquered provinces to become once more French and then to cling with redoubled energy to German customs, to the German language, and even to the German form of religion!

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE *Rivista Moderna*, which is an organ of advanced thought, writes with positive virulence in favor of the divorce bill now before the Italian Chamber. In the opinion of R. Simonini, marriage is vitiated by its irreparable character, and to the enlightened society of the future the indissolubility of the marriage tie will appear monstrous and inexplicable. However this may be, Mrs. Humphry Ward will certainly be surprised to learn that "Robert Elsmere" supplies an argument in favor of divorce.

Emporium starts the new year with an excellent number, containing, among others, a well-timed and profusely illustrated article on the Brera Gallery at Milan, which has recently been subjected to a thorough rehanging and overhauling by the curator, Corrado Ricci.

The *Nuova Antologia* is scarcely up to its usual level of excellence this month. The editor, Maggiorino Ferraris, summarizes the financial progress of Italy during the year 1902 in an article bristling with facts and figures. Less serious reading is provided by A. Panzini, who describes the castle of Miramar, near Trieste, and by R. Garzia, who contributes an illustrated account of the development of church architecture in Sardinia.

The *Rassegna Nazionale* continues its agitation against dueling, and issues sheets for the signatures of adherents to the Italian Anti-Dueling League. Lovers of Napoleonic lore will be interested in an account of the Emperor's life on the island of Elba. The *Rassegna* also publishes a long article on the lamentable condition of the little Italian boys sent into slavery in the glass factories of France, but the author adds little to what has already been published on the subject. It is curious to observe that both an American and an English novel, one by Sarah Orne Jewett, the other by Mrs. Hungerford, are being run simultaneously as rivals.

GERMAN MAGAZINES.

ULRICH VON HASSELL, in *Monatsschrift für Stadt und Land*, gives some interesting information about Germany's early relations with Venezuela. Of course, his article was written previous to the bombardment of San Carlos, and therefore gives no information on that incident. It appears that in 1525 the Augsburg banking house of Welser had accepted

the almost unknown land now called Venezuela as security for sums lent to the Spanish Government. Spaniards and Germans wanted nothing but gold, and more gold, from Venezuela and the unfortunate inhabitants. Every means, even murder, was resorted to to get gold. After all, civilization has not progressed very much since then. This attempt at colonization on the part of the Germans was an utter failure, and the house of Welser was ruined thereby. The Spaniards were supported by their government, and succeeded in driving out the inhabitants and settling there themselves. To-day, three hundred and sixty years later, German merchants have succeeded by peaceful means in establishing themselves in Venezuela. There are forty German places of business in the larger towns. Germans own land, chiefly coffee plantations, valued at \$5,000,000. The principal railway was built and is controlled by Germans. In other ways, the situation has changed. Then the house of Welser was backed by Charles V., who could hardly be called a German prince. Now, Germans in Venezuela have behind them the German Empire and a real German Emperor!—a state of things with which every German should be as pleased as with the fact that German and English warships are united for common action.

HELMHOLTZ THE PHYSIOLOGIST.

The most interesting article in the *Deutsche Rundschau* is contributed by M. von Brandt. He deals with the miners' strike in America and the problem of the trusts. H. Oldenberg concludes his series of articles on the literature of ancient India. Marie von Bunsen concludes her life-study from the eighteenth century, entitled "Mary Delany." "The Memoirs of August Schneegans," the first installment of which is published in this month's magazine, should prove interesting. He was born in 1835, in Strasburg; was therefore an Alsatian, but was loyal to Germany. He was the founder of the Autonomy party in Strasburg. He was elected to the Reichstag after the war, and in 1879 became counsel of the ministry in Strasburg. He resigned because of the attacks made on him for his German leanings. He became consul at Ravenna in 1880, and died as consul-general at Genoa in 1898.

The *Deutsche Revue* contains few articles of general interest. Leo Koenigsberger writes upon Helmholtz as professor of physiology in Heidelberg. He had then but recently been married, but his library and work-room were already under the charge of his wife, and in consequence, order began to reign there at last. Just before her marriage, she wrote to him rejoicing that she had found a human failing in him—namely, his untidiness, and the disorder in which his writing-table was generally found. She prophesied that before long she would sort things up with an energetic hand,—and apparently she carried out her intention.

THE DUTCH MAGAZINES.

THE First Exhibition of Modern Decorative Art in Turin gives a writer in *Elsevier* an opportunity for a well-illustrated article on the Dutch contribution to the show. There are illustrations of smiths' work, architecture, sculpture, and porcelain, naturally including some samples of the famous Delft ware. The Dutch make a good exhibit at this international exposition,

and if other countries send contributions to equal or approach it, the result ought to be excellent and take many visitors to what some Italians call the "cold Northern city."

"Wig Time" is an article on the customs and costumes of the Dutch during the eighteenth century. The writer describes the dwelling-house with the fantastic figures of lions and escutcheons outside, and the attempts, sometimes grotesque from a modern point of view, at ornamentation within. The ways of the people, especially the women folk, are sketched, and the reader is referred to the Royal Museum and other institutions for pictures of these ladies. Some of the illustrations are curious, showing various fashions of dressing the head and hair. The writer points out that modern Dutch ideas sprang, to a great extent, from these eighteenth-century notions, which is not a very surprising fact.

THE BOER WOMEN.

In *De Gids*, Mr. Andriessen gives us a sketch of the Boer women which is full of sympathetic admiration. Beginning with a quietly stirring account of the reception of the news that peace had been concluded on that Sunday evening in 1902, he refers to the heroic struggle made by the Boers against the might of Great Britain, and then says that behind the Boers was something—a force—that urged them on. That force was the influence of their women folk, so ready to help and to suffer for the cause of the fatherland. To properly understand the Boer women, says Mr. Andriessen, you must know their history; and he tells us all about it, beginning with 1650, when the old Dutch East India Company asked the women of Holland to send some of their poorer sisters to the Cape as wives for the almost womanless colonists. All through the struggles of the Boers in South Africa have the women been a strong force, and their influence culminated in the war so recently ended.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Quack gives us another article of a socialistic nature, by dealing with yet another old English writer, John Francis Bray, and his book on "Labour's Wrongs and Labour's Remedies." "Unequal exchanges" between capital and labor is the keynote. "The workmen have given the capitalist the labor of a whole year in exchange for the value of only half a year."

Professor van Hamel has an interesting article on a philological subject, and the remaining contents include the first installment of a novel, "In High Regions," by G. van Hulzen.

We welcome a new arrival in *Onze Eeuw* (Our Century), which somewhat resembles *De Gids* in style. It opens with a study of Dutch colonization as it affects India and Africa, followed by a story, and essays on Attic speech, or Attic eloquence, and the benefit to modern peoples of a study of that eloquence as shown in Greek authors, Byzantium, and Dante in Paradise. The last-named is specially interesting.

Vragen des Tijds again deals with the housing question, this time in connection with the proposed international congress on the subject, to be held in 1905. The circumstances differ so greatly, not only in different countries, but in different towns of the same country, that it seems impossible to lay down general rules; yet a congress may be of great utility in solving a vexed question.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

VOLUMES OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Nearly all of the most entertaining and most important among the travel books published within the past ten years have been concerned with Asia. In that vast continent great tracts of country still remain that may be as fitly labeled "unexplored" as any region of Darkest Africa itself; but the works of Sven Hedin, Dr. G. Frederick Wright, Sir Henry Norman, and others have added greatly to the Anglo-Saxon stock of knowledge concerning those distant lands and peoples. A traveler who has done much in recent years to make accessible to English readers a body of reliable information relating to Tibet and other portions of interior Asia is Mr. A. Henry Savage Landor. A new work in two volumes by this author, entitled "Across Coveted Lands" (Scribners), has to do with the somewhat better-known route through Persia from northwest to southeast. Mr. Landor describes the manners and customs of the people in detail. Reproductions of many photographs taken by him on this journey add impressiveness to the author's pen pictures of present-day social and economic conditions in the Shah's dominions.

"Around the World, through Japan," by Walter Del Mar (Macmillan), is a volume of notes and impressions the interest of which is largely personal. The writer's judgments are distinctly unfavorable to many phases of the Japanese character, and to many his strictures will doubtless seem unduly severe. The book is illustrated from photographs.

An English artist's studies in Egypt are embodied in a volume by R. Talbot Kelly, published in London by Adam and Charles Black, and in the United States by the Macmillan Company. The reproductions (in color) from Mr. Kelly's paintings, while not uniformly successful from the artistic point of view, at least serve the present purpose well by affording a graphic representation of the life and the scenery described in the text. Mr. Kelly has been a resident of Egypt for many years. In all that time he has been a faithful and sympathetic student of the institutions of the country, and especially of Mohammedan art. To American readers, Mr. Kelly is chiefly known through his contributions on Egyptian subjects to the *Century Magazine*, several of which are included in the present volume.

Since the Spanish-American War, there has been a revival of interest on this side of the Atlantic in all things Spanish. Among the books that have been recently written with a view to satisfying the demand for information about that ancient land is a volume by Dr. Jeremiah Zimmerman, entitled "Spain and Her People" (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.). Dr. Zimmerman has made an extended tour through the country, visiting many quaint and out-of-the-way towns and villages, and closely observing the customs and conditions of the people. There is much to be learned from Dr. Zimmerman's book regarding the commercial and industrial interests of the country and their promise for the future.

Mrs. James Edwin Morris has written an account of "A Tour in Mexico" (New York: The Abbey Press),

illustrated by some seventy photographs taken by the author. The principal cities and towns of Mexico, as well as the most interesting regions and many of the mountains and table-lands, are described by Mrs. Morris with great amplitude of detail.

In "Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique," by Angelo Heilprin (Lippincott), we have the most authoritative account of the great eruptions of 1902 from a scientist's point of view that has yet been published. Professor Heilprin visited Martinique shortly after the great eruption of May 8, and again in August, when it was his privilege to be a close witness of the second great death-dealing eruption of Mont Pelée. He has had quite



PROFESSOR ANGELO HEILPRIN.

exceptional opportunities for scientific observations of volcanic phenomena, and in the present volume he embodies full accounts of the observations thus made. A remarkable feature of this work is the series of photographs taken by the author himself, representing the consecutive stages in the paroxysmal eruption of a very active volcano.

"Highways and Byways in London," by Mrs. E. T. Cook (Macmillan), is a chatty and entertaining description of the sights of the modern metropolis, with numerous references, of course, to historical associations of this and that locality. The book has been illustrated by Hugh Thomson and F. L. Griggs.

BOOKS ABOUT ART AND ARTISTS.

The triumphant success of the half-tone in magazine and book illustration sometimes leads to the hasty inference that wood engraving is already a lost art. The work of such a master among the wood engravers as

Timothy Cole, much of which has been done since the era of process pictures began, is enough to convince the most radical advocate of the mechanical process that engraving on wood still has its distinctive function, which no technical perfection in mechanism can take away. Mr. Cole's volumes on "Old Italian Masters" and "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters," in which are reproduced upon wood many of the most famous paintings in the European galleries, are now followed by "Old English Masters" (Century Company), containing forty-eight specimens of Mr. Cole's work and representing such painters as Hogarth, Reynolds, Gainsborough, Lawrence, Turner, Constable, Wilkie, and Landseer. Biographical and historical notes on eighteenth-century art in England have been furnished by Prof. John C. Van Dyke to accompany Mr. Cole's engravings. There are also valuable notes on the paintings by the engraver himself.

Another work that reminds us of the honor once accorded to the engraver's art is Lady Dilke's "French Engravers and Draughtsmen of the Eighteenth Century" (Macmillan). This volume not only reproduces many rare prints, but contains a mass of curious information not easily accessible even in French literature



LADY DILKE.

and certainly never before brought together in any English publication.

All art-lovers will value the unusual opportunity for the study of the works of Corot and Millet presented in the annual supplement to the *International Studio* (New York: John Lane), edited by Mr. Charles Holme. This volume contains critical essays by M. Gustave Geffroy and M. Arsène Alexandre, translated from the French by Mr. Edgar Preston, and notes on the etchings of Millet have been contributed by Mr. Frederick Koppel. In the matter of illustration all the modern processes of reproduction have been utilized in presenting many of the choicest etchings, sketches in chalk and

water color, and oil paintings of these famous French masters. Many of the most notable collections in Europe have been freely drawn upon in assembling the originals of these pictures, and it is safe to say that the art of both Corot and Millet has been fully and fairly represented in this book. Short of access to the masterpieces themselves, which is denied to most people, the most satisfactory key to the interpretation of the artists and their work is afforded by these studies.

In Mr. Charles H. Caffin's "American Masters of Painting" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), we have brief appreciations of a dozen American painters whose art is everywhere recognized as truly representative. Not to name them all, Mr. Caffin's inclusion of such men as Inness, La Farge, Whistler, Sargent, Homer, Fuller, and Abbey in his list sufficiently indicates the range of these critical and biographical studies. Mr. Caffin's writings are notably free from technical discursiveness; his style is clear and pointed. There is also a freedom from obtrusive prejudice in his estimates of living artists. His essays are decidedly helpful to the reader seeking to gain a reasonably clear comprehension of the aims and tendencies of American art. In the illustrated edition of "American Masters" there are reproductions of many of the best examples of the painters' work.

Late issues in Bell's "Miniature Series of Painters" (Macmillan) are "Sir Edward Burne-Jones," by Malcolm Bell; "Frederic, Lord Leighton," by George C. Williamson; "Corregio," by Leader Scott; "Alma Tadema," by Helen Zimmern; "Holman Hunt," by George C. Williamson; and "Greuze," by Harold Armitage. These little books are so excellent and useful in their way that we wonder why greater care was not taken in the preparation of some of their minor features. Thus, in the list of Alma Tadema's pictures, with which it is attempted to give the names of owners as far as they can be ascertained, half a score of paintings are indefinitely assigned to "America." It stimulates the curiosity of the American reader to learn that these masterpieces are owned by some of his countrymen, but why should not the book locate for us so famous a painting as "The Coliseum," which is one of the seven specimens of the artist's work selected for reproduction? Is a painting lost to the world of art when it comes to America?

The Rev. Amory H. Bradford, D.D., has written "Messages of the Masters" (Crowell), a series of spiritual interpretations of great paintings. The author frankly disclaims the rôle of art critic, and states that his object in writing the essays was either to interpret the spiritual meaning of the painters or to follow the suggestions of their work. Thus, the book is essentially a treatment of art masterpieces from a religious point of view. The pictures considered are "The Nativity" by Burne-Jones, "The Sistine Madonna" of Raphael, "Les Nuées" by Giron, "The Holy Family" by Murillo, "Christ on the Cross" by Munkacsy, "The Pilot" by Renouf, "Sir Galahad" by Watts, "The Light of the World" by Holman Hunt, "The Old Téméraire" by Turner, and "The Transfiguration" by Raphael. Each chapter is illustrated by a full-page photogravure of the painting under consideration.

In Bell's series of "Handbooks of the Great Craftsmen" (Macmillan) there is a volume devoted to Peter Vischer, the great German bronze worker who lived at Nuremberg in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The author, Mr. Cecil Headlam, writes with enthusi-

asm of this idealist among the early craftsmen who was all his life developing and adopting the new ideas and revelations of Italian art, discarding the traditions in which he had been brought up.

Prof. John V. Van Pelt, of the College of Architecture, Cornell University, has written "A Discussion of Composition, Especially as Applied to Architecture" (Macmillan). This work is intended for the general public



JEAN-BAPTISTE CAMILLE COROT.

as well as for students of the subject. Of the six parts into which the book is divided, the first treats of the general laws of character in art; the second of general technical laws; the last four contain theoretical discussions of decoration and plan, and offer practical suggestions. All who are in any way concerned with building operations, whether on a large or a small scale, will find valuable hints in this treatise, while for those who wish a brief and clear exposition of architecture as an art, Professor Van Pelt's method of dealing with the subject is in the main highly satisfactory.

"Representative Art of Our Time" (New York: Office of the *International Studio*) is a collection of original etchings and lithographs and reproductions of paintings, pastels, etc. The first of the eight parts in which the publication is to appear contains an etching by Edgar Chahine, a monotype in colors by Alfred East, a pastel by E. Aman-Jean, a wood engraving by W. O. J. Nieuwenkamp, a tinted chalk drawing by G. Dupois, and a water-color by Josef Israëls. Purchasers of this interesting work, which is sold by subscription, obtain not only a choice collection of pictures, but also an important essay in each part on some phase of modern art, written by an acknowledged authority. In the first part, there is a good exposition of "The Modern Aspect of Wood Engraving" by Charles Hiatt.

TREATISES ON COOKERY.

The new cook books that have appeared within the past twelvemonth would make a small library of themselves. We venture no opinion as to the comparative merits or demerits of individual books, but so far as we may judge from the externals, we should say that the publishers of the "old stand-bys" in this field will have to bestir themselves, lest their new rivals capture their constituencies. Here, for instance, is Harper's "Cook Book Encyclopædia." We should call it the REVIEW OF REVIEWS of the culinary art, but for the fact that it is built on the dictionary plan,—that is, the arrangement of the material is alphabetical by topics. As a reference book it is a model of convenience, simplicity, and completeness. Experts in cookery have contributed to its pages, and the volume has been edited by the able and gifted editor of *Harper's Bazar*.

Hardly less comprehensive is "Mrs. Seely's Cook Book" (Macmillan), a manual of French and American cookery. A special feature of this work is the exposition of the rights and duties of servants, which occupies the first forty pages.

"Practical Cooking and Serving," by Janet McKenzie Hill (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a book quite outside the category of ordinary cooking manuals. In the first place, it has a distinctively scientific basis; the author has begun with a study of the chemical composition of the various food products. Furthermore, as a partial result of this scientific method in the preparation of the book, the matter is arranged in a more systematic manner than is usual in such works.

Mr. Sidney H. Beard's "Comprehensive Guide-Book to Natural, Hygienic, and Humane Diet" (Crowell) is a vegetarian cook book. It is evidently not put forth with a view to the converting of the flesh-eating world by argument, but rather as an attempt to answer practical questions in a direct and practical way. It assumes that the meat-eaters are ready, in this period of high prices, to adopt adequate substitutes, and it proceeds to tell us what the vegetarians have learned in regard to the possibilities of salads, soups, etc., of a purely vegetable composition.

"Luncheons: A Cook's Picture-Book," by Mary Ronald (Century Company), is a supplement to the "Century Cook Book," and hence it gives no general rules for cooking. It is well illustrated, as its title implies, and should prove suggestive in a thousand ways to mistress and maid. It is so arranged that housekeepers may readily make up a menu.

It is something of a relief to turn from this accumulation of kitchen handbooks, excellent and useful as they are, to Mr. George H. Ellwanger's frankly impractical historical account of "The Pleasures of the Table" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Never before, we are told, has the full history of the science of eating from the earliest times been written. Mr. Ellwanger has mastered the literature and aesthetics of the subject, and has made a really interesting book.

Another volume of quaint and curious interest is "With a Saucepan Over the Sea," by Adelaide Keen (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The book is made up of recipes from foreign countries, and embodies much information that has heretofore been inaccessible, so far as Americans were concerned.

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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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| ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | EdR. Educational Review, N. Y. | NEng. New England Magazine, Boston. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | NineC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | Era. Philadelphia. | NAR. North American Review, N.Y. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | Fort. Fortnightly Review, London. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | Forum. Forum, N. Y. | O. Outlook, N. Y. |
| ANat. American Naturalist, Boston. | FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | Out. Outlook, N. Y. |
| AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y. | Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal. |
| Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y. | Gunt. Gunt's Magazine, N. Y. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| Arena. Arena, N. Y. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| AA. Art Amateur, N. Y. | Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| AI. Art Interchange, N. Y. | Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | PL. Poet-Lore, Boston. |
| Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | IntS. International Studio, N. Y. | PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N.Y. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila. |
| Bib. Biblical World, Chicago. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila. |
| BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | Lamp. Lamp, N. Y. | RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| BL. Book-Lover, N. Y. | LeisH. Leisure Hour, London. | RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RRL. Review of Reviews, London. |
| BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | Revue. Revue, Paris. |
| Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cath. Catholic World, N. Y. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y. | Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville. | RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris. |
| Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y. | Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O. | Mind. Mind, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Contem. Contemporary Review, London. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | School. School Review, Chicago. |
| Corn. Cornhill, London. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | SR. Sewanee Review, N. Y. |
| CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y. | MonR. Monthly Review, London. | SocS. Social Service, N. Y. |
| Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y. | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | Temp. Temple Bar, London. |
| Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | Mus. Music, Chicago. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| Dial. Dial, Chicago. | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | West. Westminster Review, London. |
| Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| Edin. Edinburgh Review, London. | NatR. National Review, London. | WW. World's Work, N. Y. |
| Ed. Education, Boston. | NC. New-Church Review, Boston. | Yale. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| | | YM. Young Man, London. |
| | | YW. Young Woman, London. |